

Public Personnel Review

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Public Personnel Review

*The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada*

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Editorially Speaking . . .

• As our industrial and governmental enterprises grow in size and complexity, the premium on managerial ability mounts apace. By the same token, it becomes pressingly more important for personnel people to develop tools for the effective selection and placement of those talented individuals who are uncommonly successful in getting other people to get together to get things done.

Of late, the term "Thematic Apperception

Tests" has shouldered its way into the vocabulary of psychology and personnel testing. Those who have followed the development and use of these clinical instruments are enthusiastic over the results obtained thus far and optimistic for the future. *Personality Evaluation in the Selection of Executive Personnel*, by Dr. William E. Henry and Dr. Burleigh B. Gardner, describes the application of these tests in an industrial setting to single out peo-

ple with administrative talent, and to predict the environment in which that talent can be put to best use.

- The mushroom growth in the federal civil service during World War II called for drastic policy changes on the part of the United States Civil Service Commission. Delegation of its authority and decentralization of its functions were a part of its answer to the demand for speed of operation. This dispersion of power and prerogative has left an enduring mark on the pattern of present-day personnel administration in the federal government. It has in turn created a sizable auditing problem—the exercise of adequate controls where needed, and the provision of counsel and guidance to federal establishments in improving their own personnel programs. In his article, *An Inspection Program to Improve Personnel Administration*, F. W. Luikart tells how this dual-purpose program is operating.

- Test technicians who are looking for some guide-lines toward simplified item analysis will be indebted to David Earl for his article *Item Analysis in Public Personnel Testing*. The author points out that many of the techniques used by psychometricians in the educational testing field are impracticable for the public personnel technician. He reviews the basic statistical concepts involved in test research, and describes the various formulas and techniques that combine statistical integrity with relative simplicity.

- When the American Mission for Aid to Greece set forth in 1947, William Colman went along as adviser to the Greek Government on civil service matters. He found the Greek civil service overstuffed, underpaid, and suffering the cumulative effects of war, occupation, liberation, and revolution. His article, *Civil Service Reform in Greece*, is not only an absorbing story of a major reform effort undertaken against great odds, but it also sheds light on a little-known side of the European Recovery Program.

- A planned recreation program for employees can become an important asset in building and sustaining morale. This was clearly shown in wartime Washington, where the present federal recreation program got its start. Now, after a post-war letdown in management interest, the federal recreation program is receiving renewed attention. *Recreation for Public Employees*, by G. Larry Zuch, traces the development of the Federal Recreation Committee Program, and points to some of its recent accomplishments.

- When "minimum" job qualification requirements are drafted, says John Posegate, they too often represent the personnel man's dream of the ideal employee. When such is the case, it is small wonder that most job applicants fall short of what is demanded in the way of training and experience. In his article, *Time to Rethink Minimum Requirements*, Mr. Posegate points out that there is considerable room between the "ideal" level and the level of minimum acceptable qualifications, and urges a greater degree of realism in setting such standards.

- The success of an accident prevention program depends largely on salesmanship—selling both employees and management on the value of job safety. This has been the approach taken in setting up the safety program of the East Bay Municipal Utility District, and it has paid dividends in terms of marked reductions in on-the-job accidents. In their article, *Accident Prevention in a Public Utility*, Messrs. H. B. Fisher and W. J. Stephens describe the program and what it has accomplished.

- Readers will note the absence of the "Legal Notes" section in this issue of the *Review*. H. Eliot Kaplan, who has ably edited this department of the Assembly's journal regularly since Volume 1, No. 1, has recently become Deputy Controller of the State of New York. Although he will continue to occupy the editorial chair in the "Legal Notes" department, the pressure of his official responsibilities will require changing it from a quarterly to a semi-annual schedule.

Personality Evaluation in the Selection of Executive Personnel . . .

WILLIAM E. HENRY

AND BURLEIGH B. GARDNER

EVERY PERSONNEL DIRECTOR recognizes that the effective supervisor or executive has more than intelligence and technical skill. He also has something vaguely described as "leadership ability." This ability is usually described in terms of results. He is a person who gets things done, who can get other people to work effectively, and who can gain the cooperation of others. The difficulty has been in the determination of what it is in the person that enables him to get these results in dealing with others. There are many descriptions of the behavior of leaders, but they give us no understanding of the nature of the individual who can behave in these ways, nor do they enable us to predict that a given individual will become an effective leader in new situations.

In short, the psychodynamics of effective leadership skills have not been adequately understood. And for the most effective prediction of future behavior it is necessary to understand the psychodynamics of the individual in relation to the situation under consideration. The "what" of the behavior of the individual is interesting and useful in the description of his behavior in present situations. But it is only the "why" of that man's behavior that will permit prediction of his behavior in new and different situations.

Business, industry, and government have long been concerned with the problem of getting the most effective people into positions of responsibility. All too often men who showed great promise in one activity fail when placed in positions of greater re-

sponsibility or in positions requiring different types of leadership skills.

These failures take place in spite of high-level technical abilities or of knowledge of the administrative tasks involved—for example, the many cases of outstanding engineers who failed miserably when placed in charge of research organizations. Another common example is that of the top-notch salesman who, deserving promotion, is put into a high administrative position and becomes ineffective, in spite of his intimate knowledge of the product and organization and his high intellectual skills. At a lower level, we frequently see the outstanding worker who makes a mediocre supervisor.

To avoid such mistakes, industry has long been searching for better techniques for assessing leadership potentialities. Many firms have developed elaborate schemes for rating persons on their leadership qualities. Considerable use has been made of various tests of intelligence, abilities, and technical skills.

Projective Tests of Personality

THE MOST RECENT development in this field has been the use of projective tests of personality to reveal the psychodynamics of leadership skills. Through the use of such techniques, it has been found possible to determine the psychological factors of significance to such skills and to predict the behavior of the individual in various situations of responsibility. These projective tests of personality differ greatly from the ordinary pencil and paper tests of personality in two important aspects. They give a body of data relatively free from conscious censorship by the person being tested, and they permit the skilled interpreter to derive the dynamics of the per-

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sonality and to predict its expression in behavior.

The Rorschach and the Thematic Apperception Test are two of the best-known of these instruments. In the Rorschach, for example, the subject is asked to tell what he sees in a series of ink-blot. The wide range of response possible prevents his consciously selecting right or wrong responses. He sees the ink-blot through the lenses of his own experience and personality, and, hence, his responses reflect him and his own underlying motivation, attitudes, and anxieties. The Rorschach has been most highly developed in clinical work where it is one of the most useful tools for the study of the emotionally disturbed and the pathological.

The Thematic Apperception Test, initially developed by Morgan and Murray of Harvard University, has proved in recent use to be a more adaptable instrument for the analysis of executive personality. This test consists of a series of pictures, most of which contain one or more people. The subject is asked to describe the scene, the relationship between the people involved, what is going on in the situation, and what its outcome will be. For example, one picture in this test shows a muscular man climbing a rope. Some subjects will see this as a man climbing up the rope to escape pursuit. In some cases he will be seen as escaping and going on to a better life. Others will see him falling. The person with effective leadership skills often sees him as achieving his goal. One such response is obviously an inadequate base for analysis. However, such a response, in conjunction with the responses to the whole series of ten to twelve pictures, does enable the interpreter to develop a detailed knowledge of the personality dynamics of the individual.

A more recently developed instrument of this type is the Henry-Moore Test which makes use of twelve pictures especially designed to reveal those traits which current research suggests are most significant for the analysis and prediction of leadership potentiality. For much of the

current work for business and industry, this test is used in conjunction with the Worthington Personal History Analysis. This latter instrument makes use of much the same information as appears on an elaborate employment application blank. Research has shown that the same frame of reference basic to the interpretation of the Rorschach and the Thematic Apperception Test can be applied with great effectiveness to other forms of data such as those contained in the Personal History Analysis. The combined analysis of the data of these two instruments gives an extremely clear and useful picture of the personality structure of the individual.

Analysis and Interpretation

SOME OF THE real problems in the use of such instruments, which were originally devised for clinical use, are the following: (1) The clinicians are looking for a different sort of thing when diagnosing the disturbed individual; (2) They put their analysis in a language which the executive cannot understand; and (3) They do not orient their reports toward the prediction of behavior.

For these reasons, the development of these tools for executive analysis and placement has meant that experienced analysts must be retained to make the psychologically proper analysis. They must then translate this into the prediction of behavior in various situations, and express it in a language understandable to the executive and relevant to the kind of decision which he must make about the subject. Because of the difficulty of such analyses, the instruments are of little or no value in the hands of the untrained.

Validation Studies

THE ACCURACY of such analyses is crucial, for on them rest decisions affecting both the organization and individuals. This raises the question of how the accuracy of such analyses can be determined, i.e., what is their validity?

In our recent research on the development of these instruments we followed this procedure. The tests were adminis-

tered to more than one hundred executives in a large organization. These were people in positions varying from vice-presidential level down to people in lower level supervisory or staff positions. They were all people with several years of experience in that particular concern, and most had worked in a variety of positions. Each test was administered by a field person, interpreted by an analyst who had not seen the individual, and checked by a second analyst.

Each analysis was then discussed with the subject in order to get his feelings and ideas of the accuracy and errors of the report—whether there were errors in what was stated or whether important areas were omitted—and to determine whether the language used was effective in communicating the meaning intended. The same report was then gone over in the same way with the individual's superior, with colleagues, and in some cases with subordinates. In addition, field interviewers observed and interviewed these men in a variety of situations over periods of as much as one and two years. Since then, some three hundred additional cases have been analyzed and about half of these similarly checked with varying degrees of thoroughness.

From the first the analysts were rarely incorrect on any major aspect of the individual's personality, but the early reports left much to be desired in the prediction of behavior in new situations. As more experience has been gained, the depth of the analyses and the accuracy of the predictions have increased steadily. Concerns now using such analyses claim that they get a more useful picture of the individual and his potentialities than they get through several years of observation of the man in work situations.

In addition to the successful executives, we have dealt with many persons who have achieved and are now beginning to fail, with persons who in spite of high intelligence and skills are never effective in executive jobs, and with persons with serious emotional and psychosomatic disturbances. Such cases give greater insight into

the whole problem of the psychodynamics of the supervisor or executive.

Variations in Personality Patterns

ONE THING that is clearly shown by the studies is that you cannot place people in tight compartments labeled "Will succeed" or "Will fail." There are great variations in the personality patterns of successful executives, and the problem must be stated in terms of how a particular individual will react to a given situation and how he will control or direct his reactions as he translates them into action. Thus we find very able individuals whose need to direct others, to do things their own way, or to dominate in any situation is so great that they are a continual source of friction and annoyance in any spot where they are required to accept the control of superiors or cooperate with others. These people are often happiest and most effective as heads of a small organization where they are dominant and do not need to adjust continually to superiors or colleagues.

Another type is the insecure, somewhat dependent person who can work well in carrying out decisions and directions of others but feels lost when he must stand alone in making decisions. He can often be very effective in a well-defined position under a strong superior where he knows what is expected of him and where he stands.

In many cases we find that a given individual performs effectively in a number of very different situations. In each, however, his personality may create certain problems which he must solve before he performs effectively, and in some situations he must almost consciously act to overcome certain tendencies. For example, some are much more at ease in dealing with immediate situations, are stimulated by contacts with people, and work most comfortably in positions requiring direct action and constant contacts. Such executives find it extremely trying to be put in jobs requiring a large amount of time at their desks dealing with long-range plans or administrative details. In such cases, they must almost force themselves to stick to the job

instead of finding reasons to be out talking with people or otherwise expressing their urge for action.

The Impact of Personality

ANOTHER FACET to the problem of personality is its relation to the organization. It is frequently noted that the personality of the top executive often puts its imprint on the entire organization. One important aspect of this is how to predict the way in which the personality of a person in a key position affects the entire organization.

In studies of organizations, which in many cases included not only analyses of the executives and supervisors, but also surveys of the entire personnel, through questionnaires and interviews, it has been possible to trace the impact of the executive upon the group. In general, several things are clear.

The first is that the personality of the individual in a position of authority affects the interpersonal relations both within his subordinate group and between his group and others. As is commonly observed, the way the individual responds in face-to-face contacts has tremendous influence on his ability to secure cooperation from others. An example was seen in the case of a supervisor who felt ill-at-ease and uncertain in his relationships with people, and especially with subordinates he supervised. Because of this shyness, he tended to keep his contacts to a minimum, and most of them were on the level of giving directions or of pointing out mistakes. His subordinates felt he was cold, lacked understanding, and did not like them. As a result, morale was poor. There was a high degree of apprehension and uncertainty, and requests to transfer to other departments were frequent.

When he was given insight into his reactions and their effect on the group, he made definite efforts to change. Even though it was difficult for him, he made a point of spending more time with the group; he stopped to chat informally with each member; he became interested in them as individuals. Within a very short time they began to respond to his efforts.

They felt more at ease and could talk freely about their work without anxiety about his being critical. As a result, both morale and performance improved rapidly, and his superiors were commenting enthusiastically upon the way he had handled a bad situation.

Another instance was that of an executive in charge of a department servicing a number of other departments on certain technical aspects of their work. This executive was a very driving, dominating person, with complete confidence in his ideas and decisions. In any discussions of the work of his department, whether with subordinates or with other department heads, he never listened carefully to the other person. At the first statement of a problem, he would immediately develop ideas of his own and impose them on the other. Even when his ideas were sound, which they usually were, others at his own level felt that he was trying to run their departments and were antagonistic. Subordinates always felt that they never had a chance to show their ideas, and that he was always critical.

As a result, the other department heads were critical of him, and of his whole department, never cooperated with him if they could avoid it, and even avoided discussion with him. His subordinates who had to work with other departments felt that they were caught in the middle of the conflict. They could not do their work either to the satisfaction of their superior or of the departments they serviced. Morale was very low, the best men were leaving the company, and there were constant conflicts which had to be settled by his superior. Finally, he left the organization, set up a small enterprise of his own in which he gathered together a few able subordinates who could work under that type of a superior. In this venture he was not only very successful financially; he also obtained much more satisfaction from his work and his work relationships.

Personality and Organizational Patterns

A SECOND EFFECT of personality on organizations is seen in the way executives often

develop formal organizations which express their characteristics. Thus, many executives feel competent to handle the work and make decisions themselves, and get great satisfaction out of handling details, but they become anxious and uncertain when the authority to make independent decisions is delegated to subordinates. Such men are apt to set up elaborate controls which enable them to feel that they know every detail, can make every decision, and are generally in complete command of the situation.

When an executive at the top of a large organization operates in this way the pattern tends to be extended downward, and subordinates try to fit the pattern. Then we see considerable concern on the part of lower supervisory or executive levels over the kind of information their superiors receive, over what reports will show, and over keeping the boss informed. In the same vein, subordinates will also wish to give the appearance of being in complete command of every detail.

In other cases, we see executives who feel most comfortable when everything fits into neat compartments. They tend to set up organizations in which there is emphasis upon clear definitions of positions, duties and responsibilities, and even upon symmetrical organizational charts, even though some boxes remain unfilled. In many cases overemphasis upon this leads to inflexibility and lack of smooth cooperation at lower levels.

A characteristic of large organizations is that once the pattern is set it tends to bring in certain personalities. For example, a very dominant president who wants to make all decisions and run things his way unconsciously sets up a situation in which somewhat dependent men, or men willing to accept such strong authority, are more comfortable than are men who

are similar to the president. If the autocratic controls are very strong, men of the same type will tend to move out of the organization.

Furthermore, at the loss of the autocratic head, such a company is apt to go through a serious crisis. The subordinates have so long accepted the control and direction from above that they have never learned to make decisions on their own. They expect to be directed and led, never to lead. The personality of the top man has resulted in the building of an organization which does not produce leaders for the future. Unless a strong man is moved into that position from the outside, the organization is apt to deteriorate rapidly through lack of leadership.

Conclusion

AS EXPLORATION in this field progresses, it is evident that the projective technique for personality analysis is proving to be a powerful tool, both as an aid in the proper selection of individuals for executive positions, and as an aid to the individual in understanding himself and overcoming his weaknesses.

In addition, when combined with the study of organizational structure and relationships, these analyses provide an additional tool for building effective organizations. For such use they are an important aid in determining both the kind of individuals who will function most effectively in a given organization, and, also, the way in which a given group of people can be fitted together to make the most effective use of their abilities and personalities.

While such work is still in its infancy, its progress so far indicates that it will make rapid progress and will make an important contribution to managerial effectiveness.

An Inspection Program to Improve Personnel Administration . . . F. W. LUIKART

THE STORY of the development of the United States Civil Service Commission's inspection program is also the story of a recent major trend in federal personnel management. Two threads, interwoven and interrelated, yet somewhat distinct, may be identified in this story. First there is the thread of the story of decentralization of federal personnel management. Also distinguishable, and perhaps of equal significance to those who participate in personnel management at state and local levels of government and to students of public administration, is the thread of the story of experiment in combining police and positive assistance functions in one program and in one organization. Neither decentralization of administration nor the combination of police and aid functions is new to administrative arrangements. The application of these arrangements to the civil service personnel situation, however, is notable.

Decentralization

HISTORICALLY, the political scientist has reserved the use of the word "decentralization" and its antonym "centralization" to describe the distribution of legal power and authority as between the levels of government—local, state, and national. More recently the terms have been applied to describe the distribution of administrative authority within one level of government or within a business organization.

The growth of "bigness" in our business, governmental, and social institutions during the past fifty years has brought about such concentrations of administrative and legal authorities that all business,

private and public, would be hopelessly enmeshed in red tape without end if some means of unwinding these concentrations were not applied. Rapid, accurate, and personal handling of business relations is essential to the gaining of public confidence in either public or private business. So it came about that business and government have struck upon administrative arrangements that make these huge concentrations of authority workable and responsive to the demands of those whom they serve.

This has been accomplished by the delegation of authority to subordinates. Putting it another way, the right to make decisions in order to carry on the day's business has been pushed outward and downward from a central spot to many levels and places in an organization. Under these arrangements, many individuals become agents for a person or a board, and many actions are taken in the name of the person or the board without a check prior to the action by the person or the board. This has been called decentralization of administration.

Application to Federal Personnel Management

IN THE PERSONAL ASPECTS of management, more so than in other aspects, the federal government has experienced acute stresses and strains resulting from tremendous growth in size and activities in a setting of concentrated authority. This is undoubtedly true in all levels of government in which civil service systems have been established to prevent the abuses of spoils politics. Civil service systems, of necessity, evolve from a control philosophy because they are established to prevent certain things. We have struck upon a course to prevent abuses in appointments and other areas of public service personnel manage-

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ment by surrounding operating management with restrictions which are enforced by a separately constituted and "independent" organization.

As the growth of bigness in government forces decentralization, devotees of civil service principles naturally are hard put to adjust to the demand for decentralization of personnel authorities. It represents an attack on a fundamental precept that has stood for 65 years in this country. The challenge thrown down is: "How can we preserve the essence of our civil service principles in a decentralized system of administration?"

The magnitude of the federal government's administrative problems arising from bigness has forced this issue. Average federal employment in the continental United States in the fiscal year 1948 was 1,800,000. Contrast this with an employment of approximately 570,000 twenty years ago or the 95,000 "clerks" under the civil service system in 1900. A corollary of this growth is the fact that the federal government now recruits for 15,000 basic skills. This is almost two-thirds as many as are used in all of private industry combined—compared with the relatively few varieties of occupations recruited for in the first two or three decades after the Civil Service Act was passed in 1883.

Faced with this tremendous increase in size and diversity of functions, coupled with the dispersion of its activities throughout the nation and the world, the federal government has had to decentralize its personnel operations. The concentration of all recruiting and examining of people for federal employment in the Civil Service Commission is no longer workable. Likewise, the processes involved in other phases of personnel management—in classification of jobs, in record keeping, and in investigations—can no longer be handled effectively by one central agency of a size that could be justified economically to Congress. Furthermore, the experience of the war years, when the facilities and efforts of people in the departments and agencies had to be utilized in personnel processes previously operated only by the

Civil Service Commission, brought the realization that personnel management within the merit system in this huge federal establishment can be much more effective if the resources and talents of the operating departments and agencies are utilized in the process.

Delegation of Authority

THE ANSWER to the problem has been the delegation of authority to act for the Civil Service Commission. The effectiveness of this device first had to be learned within the Commission. As the federal government expanded in size and spread geographically in the decades before World War II, the Civil Service Commission had to expand its operations outside of Washington. Subordinates in the field were given certain authorities normally discharged by officials in the Commission's Washington headquarters. Next came expansion in the number and authorities of examining boards in the field establishments of the departments and agencies. Through these boards, employees of the departments and agencies recruited and examined people for their establishments under authority given them by the Civil Service Commission. By this system, the recruiting requirements of field establishments, which were some distance from the facilities of a civil service office, were filled satisfactorily. Actually, this examining-board program was an expansion of a device developed by the Commission and a number of federal departments in the early years of federal civil service to take care of the recruitment needs of their far-flung field establishments.

With the advent of the recent war period, the process of decentralization was accelerated. Wartime government required utmost speed in recruitment, appointment, and promotion of employees. This requirement was met by delegating many authorities to officers of the departments and agencies.

The Civil Service Act of 1883 grants considerable discretion to the President in formulating rules to govern the civil service system. Under the authority of the

President, therefore, the Civil Service Commission has been able to decentralize certain personnel processes without legal contention. In fact, some have said that the framers of the act probably never intended the creation of a centralized examining system operated by the Civil Service Commission; rather, the intent was that the departments and agencies would conduct the recruiting and examining process under standards and systems prescribed by the Civil Service Commission.

At any rate, rapid developments toward decentralization have taken place in federal personnel management during the past decade. It has not come about at the stroke of a pen, nor as a result of a decision of any one person. Neither has it followed the carefully worked out steps of an overall plan—for there has been no such plan. Decentralization, to the extent that we have it, has resulted from crises—crises created by the growth of bigness in a highly centralized management system.

The Inspection Unit

DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY to act is not the answer in itself to the demands of bigness—particularly in a governmental setting where law lodges responsibility that cannot be dodged. In government, where important parts of the personnel aspects of management are governed by law, and the enforcement of the provisions of that law is placed outside the management line, responsibility and accountability cannot be delegated. In such a setting, decentralization by delegation of authority to act could easily result in disorganization unless controls are exercised. This is just as true in business as in government.

Two elements are essential to make decentralization effective and proper. First, guides must be issued to the agent receiving the delegation so that he has a clear concept of the limits of his authority and the standards by which he will be judged in the exercise of that authority. Then, there must be a system of review to provide, to those who are accountable, knowledge as to the effectiveness with which the authorities have been used and the assur-

ance that actions taken under the delegated authorities have been proper.

By creating a new inspection organization in 1946, the Civil Service Commission recognized that decentralization of personnel authorities had progressed to the degree where an orderly and systematic program of review had to be instituted. Also, being cognizant of its growing responsibility for providing leadership for the improvement of federal personnel management, the Civil Service Commission incorporated that concept in the new inspection organization. This brings us to the second distinct thread in this story—the combining of police and staff advisory functions in the same organization.

The Role of the Inspection Unit

THE DUAL ROLE of the inspection organization is revealed in the following five objectives adopted for the program:

1. To afford the Civil Service Commission current and accurate information as to the effectiveness with which specific delegations of the Commission's authority are discharged by the departments and agencies;
2. To assist the departments and agencies in adhering to the policies, standards, and procedures prescribed by the Commission for the administration of the delegated authorities;
3. To insure that committees of expert examiners and boards of examiners understand and adhere to the policies, standards, and procedures prescribed by the Commission for the administration of their functions;
4. To afford the Civil Service Commission current and accurate information as to the scope, content, and effectiveness of agency personnel programs;
5. To encourage improvement in federal personnel management policies and practices.

Considering civil service tradition, it is quite natural that a large measure of time and effort in the early phases of the program has been devoted to the control aspect. Elements both in and out of Congress have expressed alarm over the trend to delegate civil service authority, particularly in the recruiting and examining field. Some have viewed it as a return to the spoils system; others have seen in it the encouragement of the "old school tie" patronage; and still others have feared possible breakdown in carrying out the na-

tional policy of granting preference to veterans.

Confronted with this array of sincere opponents to decentralization, the Civil Service Commission has had to take the responsibility of insuring that operating departments and agencies have exercised the delegated authorities without scandal and injury to the merit system. Utmost care has therefore been taken to refine the review techniques so that this regulatory side of the program, as distinguished from the management-assistance emphasis, is thoroughly covered. Each of the 70-odd inspectors throughout the country is thoroughly trained and armed with a carefully prepared handbook which serves as a constant reminder of records he must look at, the observations he should make, and the interviews he must conduct to insure an adequate coverage of each agency's activities under delegated authorities.

To further insure that adequate inspection coverage is made of this far-flung federal enterprise, a representative sampling system is used to select the field establishments to be inspected and the personnel records to be reviewed. Roughly 5,000,000 personnel actions of various types are required annually in support of our federal civil service population of approximately 2,000,000. Of these 5,000,000 actions, about one-half have some feature related to civil service requirements under delegated authority. These cannot all be reviewed by a staff of 70 inspectors, nor would it be wise to expend all the money that would be required to review them currently. Improvements in statistical sampling have provided a method of making adequate review by looking at only one-tenth, or less, of this number.

Likewise, the total number of federal field establishments is beyond that which can be covered once each year by the present inspection staff. Here again, by inspecting a representative number of the establishments of a large department, such as the Army and Navy, an adequate conclusion may be drawn as to the operations of the entire nation-wide network of the establishments of that department.

In the two-year period since inspections were started, the record book looks like this:

Number of inspections made.....	3,000
(Agencies and Boards of Examiners)	
Number of personnel actions inspected...	148,436
Number of violations discovered and corrected.....	4,340
Percent of violations.....	2.9

Major types of violations:

Temporary appointments of persons out of priority order which requires that disabled veterans be appointed ahead of nondisabled veterans, etc.

Persons appointed temporarily, pending establishment of a register, not qualified under the standards.

Time limits for promotions and reassignments not observed.

Written test requirements not observed in promotions and reassignments.

Improper notice given to veterans in connection with reductions in force.

This is proof to those of us who are involved in this program that decentralization has worked successfully. We are more than ever convinced of that conclusion when we add the fact that it is a rare case of violation that arises from willful intent. Moreover, in not over a dozen cases has inspection disclosed that the proportion of errors and violations is so high that serious action must be taken. In those instances the Commission has moved rapidly and vigorously to withdraw authority to act until the violations are corrected and the agency's house is put in order to prevent recurrence.

A Positive Approach

EVEN IN THIS regulatory and police aspect of the program, the concept of assistance is not forgotten. Frankly, any review program of this sort is a control process. Emphasis in such a process, however, can either be in the direction of merely digging up and correcting violations, or emphasis can be placed on ferreting out the cause of errors for the purpose of eliminating the cause. The Commission's inspection program emphasizes correcting the cause.

Nothing could be more injurious to a

balanced program of control and assistance than the dogged policing of errors without reference to the cause and an attempt to correct the cause. Measures to insure that the assistance concept prevails in the process are prescribed in the following methods of approach:

1. Notice of inspection is usually given thirty days in advance of the visit.
2. Upon arrival at the agency to be inspected, inspectors make known to the head of the agency their presence and their purpose.
3. Findings of the inspector are made known as he progresses with the review and as the agency officials desire, with opportunity being given for correction of errors and violations.
4. A complete oral report of the findings is given to the head of the agency at the close of the inspection.
5. A copy of the written report of findings and recommendations, prepared by the inspector, is submitted to the head of the agency immediately after completion of the inspection.

These measures, plus a philosophy of giving help which is drilled into the inspector during the training program, keep the policing process from being entirely negative. The groundwork is thus laid for receptiveness of the positive staff-help, which the inspector can render through suggestions for improving the personnel management program in general.

Management Improvement Aspects of Inspection

A STATED OBJECTIVE of this program is "to encourage improvement in federal personnel management practices." Over the years of federal civil service history there has been gradual change in purpose. Originally, a major concept and purpose was the prevention of abuses in appointment to the public service. In government this purpose is still important, but there is also the realization now that personnel management, whether in government or industry, also embraces the objectives of obtaining competent employees and providing an atmosphere that is conducive to their superior performance. The Civil Service Commission has been looked upon by some as the logical organization in the federal system to assume the leadership in driving toward these objectives.

In returning the government employ-

ment practices to normal civil service routine following the war, the President expressed this hope thusly in his executive order:

The Commission shall exercise and provide leadership in personnel matters throughout the federal service, and in the discharge of this responsibility shall, whenever practicable, consult federal agencies.¹

There has not been universal acceptance of the Civil Service Commission in this new role. No doubt it will take many years to develop fully a positive staff program and to secure its acceptance. During World War II the Commission devoted considerable of its resources to providing staff help to operating agencies on personnel-utilization and personnel-management advisory service. The extreme shortage of manpower of all sorts was compelling justification for the Commission's operations in that area. In the postwar era those phases of the central personnel agency's program were looked upon by many people as unnecessary frills, and there was a resultant cut in appropriations and virtual elimination of a program concentrating on such staff work.

The crying need for central direction in federal personnel management improvement was not to be entirely denied, and some aspects of that idea are preserved in the new inspection program. Not all personnel management assistance work, by any means, is lodged in the inspection organization. The assistance concept infiltrates into all phases of the Commission's work, although the inspection program represents the one focal point of such emphasis.

With that tradition as a background, it is probably not surprising that attention to regulatory and control functions takes precedence in the inspection program. Nevertheless, there has been a gradual increase in efforts devoted to providing central staff help to operating agencies on personnel management in general.

For example, approximately a year ago the inspection division inaugurated the quarterly publication of its *Inspection*

¹ Executive Order 9830, May 1, 1947.

Bulletin. This document is distributed to heads of all departments and agencies and their field establishments. Its purpose has been to serve as a medium of exchange on advanced personnel management practices and to present a point of view on certain aspects of personnel management. For instance, one bulletin has outlined the essential elements in a successful personnel program and how to make the program understandable to the employees. Another bulletin has been devoted to promotion programs—the principles which underlie an effective promotion system and how to apply them.

Reports and Recommendations

ANOTHER DEVELOPING phase of the inspection program is to broaden each inspection to include a general review of the personnel program and the processes and procedures in use for the accomplishment of the program. Inspection reports reflect this trend, for there has been a growing tendency to make the findings and recommendations on the personnel aspects of the agencies' management programs more prominent in inspection reports.

For example, in a recent report of inspection made in the departmental office of a large agency, the Commission made these suggestions to the head of that agency:

1. In the course of the inspection it was noted in many instances . . . that there was vagueness on the part of supervision as to what the subordinate was specifically doing . . . just as there was vagueness on the part of subordinates as to their responsibilities. . . . This could be corrected through the use of work assignment statements and standards of performance . . . to bring into clear focus the duties and responsibilities of each employee and to provide a means for measuring the effectiveness of the employee. . . .

2. With reference to the morale situation, it would be advisable for the department to take steps to locate and correct the obviously inequitable cases arising from failure to diminish responsibilities in connection with downward allocations of positions.

3. It is the opinion of the inspectors that, while personnel records may be adequate in the local sense, there does not exist a coherent, effective over-all system of records and procedures.

In another report it was recommended that the department head:

1. Establish standards for judging the adequacy of the classification program.

2. Develop a field review and advisory program to give assistance to field offices in operating under delegated personnel authorities.

3. Conduct a procedural study throughout the agency for the purpose of establishing a uniform system of personnel records and reporting procedures to achieve economy of reporting and record keeping.

In still another inspection the head of the agency was advised that much of the observed low morale of his organization resulted from the feeling on the part of employees that the agency had no consistent personnel policy. Upon receipt of this report, this agency's officials sought and received help from the inspection division in the formulation of a written statement of personnel policy bearing on such matters as promotion, employee development and training, grievance procedure, etc.

The record of examples of this kind of personnel staff work is growing constantly as inspections continue throughout the country. Operating heads of departments and agencies and their field subordinates who have been the recipients of this service are in a far better position to judge objectively the quality and effectiveness of this part of the program than are those who participate directly. Following are examples of evaluations received:

One agency official, writing an internal memorandum to the agency head in commenting on a particular field inspection, had this to say:

Actually the Civil Service Commission's inspection report is one of the best tools we in administration have to evaluate our personnel operation from a technical standpoint. It can be of immeasurable assistance as can everything which points out our weaknesses and leads the way to improvement.

The Assistant Secretary of one of the cabinet departments, in acknowledging receipt of an inspection report, commented as follows:

A full and detailed study of your report and its significance on our program is under way and will be most helpful to effect improvement in those areas in which specific comment is made.

The additional service performed by your inspection staff in evaluating functions not normally covered in your inspection is appreciated and we wish to advise that we were impressed with

the competence and cooperativeness of your inspectors.

The following are excerpts from a letter revealing a rather surprising reaction on the part of the head of an agency who had just received a report of inspection, together with the Commission's decision to withdraw all delegated authority as a result of the findings in that inspection:

... Thank you also for listing the steps which you believe this (agency) should take to put its personnel functions in order.

I want you to know we very much appreciate the excellent work the Civil Service Commission has done and is now doing in helping us improve our personnel procedures and organization. . . . As a result of the excellent work . . . many of the corrective steps mentioned in the report have already been taken.

Finally, the following comment is indicative that the philosophy "inspection can be helpful" is applied. This letter came from the head of a field establishment:

I would like to take this opportunity to state that the inspection program, as conducted by the inspection division of the . . . (region identified)

is one of the best; if not the best, inspection program I have seen. The men from your inspection division were helpful and conducted themselves in an excellent manner. My personnel staff at no time felt that they were under an inspection; instead we felt that we were having a conference in the field of personnel administration. . . .

Central agency civil service functions in the federal system are still weighted heavily on the side of (a) central personnel services in examining, classification, investigations, retirement, and records work, and (b) regulatory and appellate activities.

The significant point is, however, that decentralization of many examination, classification, and records functions has provided an encouraging setting for greater activity on the part of the Civil Service Commission in rendering central staff assistance on programs to the operating departments and agencies. Review of agency personnel operations and programs has been formalized through an inspection service. While a major emphasis of inspection is still on the regulatory and control side, inspection is more than policing.

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Item Analysis in Public Personnel Testing DAVID M. EARL

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ADMINISTRATORS and technicians in public personnel work frequently feel the need of improving the quality of their examination material. However, when they attempt to study the pertinent literature in the statistical field, they find much of it is either written in extremely technical terms, or it does not actually apply to the problems of public personnel testing. For example, in considering such concepts as the external criterion, the control group, or desirable standards of validity, the personnel technician is often limited by considerations which do not apply to the educational research worker.

This article represents an attempt to bring the subject of item analysis within the range of actual utility for the busy personnel man. This is done first, by explaining the basic statistical concepts applicable to item analysis, and second, by describing those techniques which, through a combination of statistical integrity and effective simplicity, recommend themselves for practical use. Sufficient references are given so that any reader desiring to do so can readily make a deeper study of the field.¹

It goes without saying that only a part of the material employed by public agencies in testing can be fruitfully handled statistically. Examinations prepared for single-position jobs, or for jobs which by their very nature attract only a handful

of qualified applicants, even if they are constructed from short-answer material, will unavoidably include items on which worthwhile statistics cannot be obtained. (It is, however, true that even a high-level noncompetitive examination may contain a good share of material that has been previously used so that, if analyzed before, such items may furnish a rough check on the applicant's general ability.) For the purposes of this article, it is assumed that the material subjected to analysis has been administered to a reasonably large number of applicants. In general, 100 cases should probably be the minimum; if the material has been administered to more than 100 applicants, so much the better. If the same form of the test is repeated, statistics may be accumulated until sufficient cases have been obtained.

Concepts Related to the Examination as a Whole

THE VALIDITY of the examination is usually related to an outside criterion. In public personnel work, however, such a criterion is difficult to find and practically impossible to measure. The subjectivity of service ratings is a well-known problem. For this reason, nonstatistical approaches such as "face validity" and "defensibility" are more commonly employed. (4) These depend respectively on attitudes of authorities in the field, and on standard works of reference, neither of which are commonly subjected to statistical analysis.

The reliability of the examination, on the other hand, can be measured by statistical techniques and, in a sense, is of more fundamental importance than the validity. This is due to the generally accepted convention that, to be valid, a test *must* be reliable, while the reverse does not fol-

¹ The need for item analysis and an explanation of some of the benefits which may be expected from such a program have been covered in previous articles in *Public Personnel Review*, notably those by D. D. Feder (3) and I. E. McConnell (13). (Numerals in parentheses refer to the bibliography at the end of this article.)

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low. In addition to being significant in itself, the reliability of a test is of especial value if a new form is to be constructed by using part of the material. In such a case, the respective reliabilities of the two forms should be compared in order to insure that no great lowering of reliability has occurred. One should also bear in mind that an examination does not possess "reliability" in an abstract sense. The reliability coefficient is dependent on the distribution characteristics of the sample tested and should be understood as the "reliability of a given test for a particular population sample." (3) Naturally, the time limits must also be kept constant in administering the test.

In speaking of reliability, M. W. Richardson says:

It is possible to conclude that the rejection of items with low item-test correlations raises the reliability of a test, if the number of items is held constant. . . . (If) the dispersion of the original item intercorrelations . . . is great, extending to a number of negative values, it is theoretically possible to attain a higher reliability with a smaller number of items. (14, pp. 72-73)

Concepts Related to the Individual Item

ACCORDING TO Henry E. Garrett, "the difficulty of an item is determined by the proportion of some standard group able to solve the item correctly." (6, p. 400) Accordingly, difficulty is a simple percentage score; the higher the score, the easier the item.

In public personnel testing, where items with high intercorrelations are intentionally employed, it is necessary to provide varying levels of difficulty in order to discriminate between good and poor applicants.² Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann incline to the view that "the ideal test would consist of items of high discriminating power distributed evenly over the difficulty scale." (8, p. 49) Naturally, the difficulty levels should be so adjusted to the group being tested that no

scores of zero or perfect will be attained. (6)

If items are to be chosen or discarded on the basis of percentage difficulties, a word of caution is in order. Due to the factor of chance, difficulty percentages are comparable only between items having the same number of choices. This may be demonstrated as follows:

If we consider the three commonly used types of items: completion, multiple-choice, and true-false, the standard for purposes of difficulty scoring may be taken to be the completion item. In this case, the subject either knows the answer or does not know it. Chance plays no predictable part; if 50% of the applicants are successful, the item may be considered to have a "true 50%" difficulty.

In contrast, consider the true-false item. From a population having no information whatever on the subject, 50% should by chance obtain the right answer. This means that the area in which knowledge or the lack of it could influence answers to the item is only 50% of the total population: that portion which would not get the right answer through chance. For such an item to have a "true 50%" difficulty, it must be answered correctly by 50% (by chance) plus half the remainder, or by a total of 75% of the testees. Similarly, for a multiple-choice item with four choices, "true 50%" would be at the 62½% level.³ If desired, the technician can easily develop a conversion chart giving mutually comparable difficulty values for the various types of items commonly used in his own agency.

The concept of validity, with regard to the individual test item, actually refers to the predictive or discriminatory power of the item. The criterion is the test as a whole. The validity of an item is the degree to which success or failure on that

³ The writer has not found this concept stated elsewhere, and accordingly offers his own formula:

$$\text{True } x\% = \frac{1}{c} + x\% \left(1 - \frac{1}{c}\right)$$

c = number of choices; for a completion item, c = infinity

² In addition to this purely statistical reason, there is also a strong feeling that a clearly noticeable range of difficulty from easy to hard is desirable on the psychological grounds of encouraging all subjects to do their best. (6, 12)

item indicates possession of the ability being measured. "The item-test coefficient gives an indication of the extent to which the item measures what the test as a whole measures," according to Richardson. (14, p. 71) Because one of the variables, the item, is either "right" or "wrong," while the other variable, the test score, runs in a continuous series, validity is usually, although not necessarily, considered to be a "biserial coefficient of correlation."

There is some difference of opinion, as to how much validity should be required of an item. Thorndike (quoted by J. P. Guilford) feels that a validity coefficient of .30 is the lowest that should be retained in a test designed for the same type of group as the one from which the index was obtained. (7) On the other hand, Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann state that:

In general, the best procedure seems to be to use the index of discrimination solely as a means of identifying seriously defective items, i. e., those with negative or very low indices, but not to employ it in choosing between items showing reasonably high positive indices—the choice in the latter case to be based primarily upon logical rather than statistical considerations." (8, p. 54)

In any case, Long and Sandiford point out that:

If one is preparing a 100-item test, it will be a waste of time, in most cases, to experiment with a great number of surplus items. We may expect almost as good results by eliminating the 50 worst from 150 items as by selecting the 100 best from 1000. (12, p. 97)

The degree to which individual items measure the same ability is designated as their "intercorrelation." The concept of intercorrelation is basic when considering how individual items affect test reliability. According to Kuder and Richardson:

It is implicit in the formulations of the reliability problem that reliability is the characteristic of a test possessed by virtue of the positive intercorrelations of the items composing it. (11, p. 159)

Item intercorrelation is also definitely related to the difficulty and validity of the individual items. Because of the amount of time required to compute item intercorrelations, and because difficulty and validity are the more fundamental

characteristics of the item, the public personnel administrator will in most cases prefer to concentrate his program of item analysis on the latter two factors.

Technique Related to the Examination as a Whole

DUE TO THEIR relative ease of computation, the Kuder-Richardson formulas for the estimation of test reliability have received wide acceptance. (3, 5, 9, 15) Although the simpler of the two, K-R 21, was intended only for items of approximately equal difficulty, subsequent research by Gustav J. Froehlich has shown that even with difficulty differences of as high as 80% between items, K-R 21 is sufficiently accurate for practical purposes.⁴ As this material was covered by Feder in the article previously referred to, it is not taken up in detail here.

Techniques Related to the Individual Item

Percentage Scales. The basic measurement of item difficulty is simply the percentage of correct answers given by the group being tested. A simplified variation is suggested by Feder (3) and by J. C. Flanagan (4) when upper and lower groups are being used in validity computation. This consists of averaging the percentages correct in the two groups for each item and ignoring the responses of the middle group.

Sigma or PE-Scales. If normality of distribution can be assumed for the ability being measured by the test, Garrett recommends that individual items be scaled to indicate their difficulty. (6, pp. 146-49) Either a sigma or a PE-scale may be used, in accordance with the curve of normal distribution. Although this procedure

⁴ Froehlich suggests a simpler form of K-R 21, as follows: (5)

$$R = \frac{\sigma^2 n - M(n - M)}{\sigma^2 (n - 1)}$$

R = reliability of the test
 σ = standard deviation of the test
 n = number of items
 M = mean of test scores

In this formula, it is assumed that items are scored 1 for right, 0 for wrong. (9)

seems to add an unnecessary refinement to the description of the item's difficulty. Ira E. McConnell reports excellent results with a sigma scale of item difficulty in public personnel work. (13)

A considerable number of techniques for the computation of item validity have been evolved. Dorothy C. Adkins estimates that 25 to 30 have been proposed (1), while Long and Sandiford analyze 21 and state that others exist. (12) Naturally, many of these techniques are related, so that it is possible to classify them into various major groupings.

One of the basic ways of classifying validity techniques is according to whether they do or do not favor items of 50% difficulty. Some formulas are intentionally constructed to weight more heavily those items approaching the 50% difficulty level and give less weight to items at the extremes of difficulty. Other authorities feel that validity should be measured as purely as possible and not confused with difficulty in a single index. For example, Flanagan says:

Obviously, in a practical situation, these two factors of item validity and item difficulty should be given separate consideration, and an index which obscures the estimate of validity by combining it with a difficulty characteristic is to be avoided. (4, p. 675)

However, it is conceivable that in many cases the rougher combination index would be satisfactory in public personnel testing. The reason why the tendency to favor the middle difficulty range is not so serious as it might appear is that, actually, items in this part of the range do function more effectively in the discrimination process than those at the extremes. The number of discriminations made by an item is the product "pq," or successes times failures. At 90% difficulty, this product is (90×10) 900, but at 50%, it is (50×50) 2500. (2, 12)

From the literature on the subject, the writer has selected two techniques, one illustrating each of the above approaches. Both techniques are simple to apply, as is shown in the section, "Application of Techniques."

Free of 50% Bias: Biserial r. "The best index of validity," according to Flanagan, "is one which provides an index of the extent to which an item will predict the criterion. Such an index is provided by the product-moment correlation coefficient and its various modifications. The most common situation is one in which the biserial correlation coefficient applies." (4, p. 677)

In general, biserial r is considered to be the standard technique. (6, 7) The labor of computing it for item validity values has been eliminated since the publication of Flanagan's chart. (4)⁵ By use of this chart, it is possible to read the value of biserial r directly or by interpolation, knowing only the percentage of correct responses in the upper and lower groups, respectively. The upper and lower groups might conceivably be the two halves of the population, or the upper and lower thirds, quarters, tenths, etc. It is obvious that the smaller the groups become, the greater is the difference in their means. However, as they grow smaller, the probable error increases. It has been determined by Truman L. Kelley that the group-size having the best relationship between these two factors is at 27% (10), and Flanagan's chart is set up on the basis of 27% groups. However, for practical purposes, 25% groups (the upper and lower quartiles of the distribution) are equally satisfactory. (3, 4)

Involving 50% Bias: Rough V-Score. The formula for this technique is as follows: (12, p. 31)

$$V = \frac{\text{Percentage Right} - \text{Percentage Right}}{\text{Upper Group} - \text{Lower Group}}$$

For a rough and ready approximation, including both difficulty and validity, this formula is very serviceable. The manner in which it discriminates toward the center of the difficulty range is demonstrated as follows:

An item of 50% difficulty might have the responses so distributed that 100% in

⁵ A refinement of the chart is presented in (3, p. 129).

the upper group were correct and none in the lower group were correct. The validity, according to this formula, would then be $(100 - 0) / 100$. But an item of 90% difficulty, if 100% of the upper group were successful, would be answered correctly by 80% of the lower group. Its validity thus could not exceed $(100 - 80) / 20$, according to this formula.

Application of Techniques

AN EXAMPLE is given at the end of this article which indicates the comparative scores obtained by the different techniques mentioned. The material analyzed consisted of items used in Detroit examinations for Student Technical Assistant. The section from which the items were drawn included 45 items, of which the first 15 were four-response multiple-choice, and the remaining 30 were true-false. The responses which formed the subject of this survey were accumulated from examinations administered on October 16, 1947, November 19, 1947, and February 5, 1948. The upper and lower groups were set at 25%, so that they represented respectively the fourth and first quartiles (when papers were ranked according to total weighted scores for the examination as a whole). For the sake of brevity, the statistics shown include only those for the first 30 items of the section, of which numbers 1 thru 15 are multiple-choice and numbers 16 thru 30 are true-false. The data are listed in rank number order, from best to worst, according to the correlation (biserial r) scores.

In setting the minimum acceptable biserial r , logical considerations as well as statistical must be kept in mind. A score of .30 or better is desirable, but in some cases, in the table given, it would be impractical to insist on it. However, below .20 we may be sure the items are contributing very little to the examination and should be discarded or rewritten. If the rough V-score is used in place of the biserial r , again .20 appears to be a good cut-off point. In our table, although the rank order of the items varies between the

two scoring methods, it is interesting that a critical score of .20 eliminates exactly the same items in both the biserial r column and the rough V column. Such exact correspondence cannot, of course, be expected in all cases.

Although the difficulty score is not so important in determining which items to eliminate, it will be of help in assembling a new section by indicating the sequence in which the items should be arranged and possibly by indicating an excess of items at a particular difficulty level.

Minimum Item Analysis Procedure. The use of the rough V-score is recommended for an agency that desires to improve its tests through application of statistical procedures but must spend the least amount of time and money possible on such a program. This score alone, combining some of the elements of both validity and difficulty, serves fairly well as a rough criterion of item "goodness." The basic figures on which the percentages are based may be obtained either by using the IBM Graphic Item Counter or by hand tabulation.

Adequate Item Analysis Procedure. If an agency can afford a slightly greater expenditure of effort, an adequate picture of characteristics of the individual items can be obtained by the use of Flanagan's table, for validity, and the average of successes in upper and lower groups, for difficulty. Because of the intense distortion around the edges, or outside limits, of Flanagan's table, it is further recommended that in using the table, it should be cut off at 5% and 95%; in other words, that percentages less than five be considered as 5% and those over 95 be considered as 95%. This procedure will avoid the misleadingly high coefficients sometimes obtained around the extremes of the table and will also tend to increase the conservatism of the estimate. This method was used in preparing the tabulations shown below.

Conclusion. In choosing a technique for item analysis, the personnel administrator would naturally prefer a procedure

in which the detail work can be turned over to a member of his clerical force, rather than requiring the full-time attention of a technician. At the same time, he will want to be sure that the results he

obtains are statistically sound and defensible. It is felt that from among the large number of proposals published, those mentioned and described herein will best satisfy both requirements.

Item No.	% Right Upper Group	% Right Lower Group	Biserial <i>r</i>	Difficulty	Rough <i>V</i>
8.....	85	30	.56	57.5	.55
{19.....	100	70	.43	85	.30
{29.....	95	70	.43	82.5	.25
{3.....	80	40	.42	60	.40
{25.....	80	40	.42	60	.40
16.....	80	45	.38	62.5	.35
4.....	90	65	.35	77.5	.25
{26.....	100	80	.32	90	.20
{30.....	100	80	.32	90	.20
7.....	90	70	.30	80	.20
18.....	80	55	.28	67.5	.25
{1.....	70	45	.26	57.5	.25
{6.....	60	35	.26	47.5	.25
{9.....	65	40	.26	52.5	.25
17.....	80	60	.24	70	.20
21.....	75	55	.22	65	.20
22.....	60	40	.21	50	.20

Validity Questionable Below This Point:

27.....	50	35	.16	42.5	.15
{2.....	100	90	.15	95	.10
{5.....	10	5	.15	7.5	.05
{11.....	25	15	.15	20	.10
{12.....	60	45	.15	52.5	.15
{23.....	95	90	.15	92.5	.05
28.....	60	50	.10	55	.10
20.....	75	70	.06	72.5	.05
{13.....	70	65	.05	67.5	.05
{24.....	65	60	.05	62.5	.05
14.....	100	95	.00	97.5	.05

Validity Negative Below This Point:

10.....	5	15	-.25	10	-.10
15.....	15	40	-.31	27.5	-.25

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Civil Service Reform in Greece

WILLIAM G. COLMAN

IN CARRYING OUT the European Recovery Program, the United States can contribute materially to economic recovery in the participating countries by providing assistance in various fields where scientific and technical "know how" is deficient. In recognition of this possibility, the 80th Congress, in appropriating funds for ERP, provided a sum not to exceed \$6,000,000 for the furnishing of "technical information and assistance." The importance of this type of assistance was further emphasized by President Truman in his recent inaugural address.

One important way in which technical assistance may facilitate economic recovery in Europe is through the improvement of public administration. To a much greater extent than in the United States, economic well-being in many European countries is directly dependent upon government administration. Government ministries actively direct the economic affairs of the country, and without adequate standards of administration including an efficient civil service, recovery is seriously impeded. The purpose of this discussion is to examine assistance which has been rendered by the United States to the government of Greece in an attempted reform of the civil service, to examine the failure of this attempt, and to draw conclusions therefrom which may be of value in planning future programs in other countries.

Based upon an emergency request by President Truman in early 1947, a pro-

gram of military and economic aid to Greece was enacted by the Congress in order to support that country in its struggle against Communist rebellion and to assist it in recovering from the damage incurred during World War II. In the exchange of notes between the two governments in which Greece invited assistance, both sides indicated that they felt improvement in government administration and the civil service was essential to economic recovery and political stability. Consequently, the American Mission for Aid to Greece, which was established to carry out this program set up a Civil Government Division whose objectives were to reorganize, simplify, and decentralize the government and improve its civil service. From July 1947 to July 1948, a small group of specialists labored toward these objectives with little success.

Generally speaking, their failure to achieve noticeable results, at least in so far as civil service improvement was concerned, was due principally to the following factors: (1) Practically complete political and governmental demoralization. (The past decade has seen Greece first ravaged by German occupation, then internally riven by civil war.) (2) Unwillingness of the American Mission to require, in strong terms, an honest attempt at governmental reform as a condition of further economic aid. (3) Faulty strategy and tactics by the Mission. (In the absence of sanctions compelling the adoption by the government of economic, budgetary, and administrative reforms, the Mission's initial recommendations and actions were too drastic. It started with a "tough" policy and then failed to back it up, with the result that subsequent recommendations were not taken too seriously.) (4) An environment of economic inflation and unemployment, with gov-

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ernmental employment constituting a virtual relief roll of immense proportions, thereby making difficult if not impossible any retrenchment of the payroll to a manageable size. (Discharged civil servants might very well prefer to join the guerillas in the mountains in preference to starvation.) (5) Disinclination of legislators and political heads of departments to change over from a patronage to a merit system of personnel selection and administration. (This factor is not peculiar to the Greek situation.)

Organization of the Greek Government

THE GREEK GOVERNMENT is of the constitutional monarchy type, with a king, a prime minister, 21 ministries, a parliament of 354 members, and a judicial system patterned after France's. Administratively, the country is divided into 47 nomoi, which are similar to counties in the United States; 150 eparchies or election districts; 169 cities; and 5,642 smaller communities. There is little local self-government in Greece. All of Greece looks to Athens for its destiny. In most areas local elections have not been held since 1939. All local officials are appointed by the central government. Politically, there are 16 parties represented in Parliament, the members of which are elected for four-year terms. The two largest parties are the Populist and the Liberal. The principal difference between these two parties is that the Populist is monarchist while the Liberal is republican. The present government comprises a coalition among the major parties.

The administrative setting in Greece is unusual. The Greek government is of the Cabinet type, common to continental Europe, but organizational structure and administrative practices frequently differ sharply from those of Great Britain, France, and Italy. As in most Cabinet forms of government, there is no strong executive such as we know in the United States. A high degree of autonomy resides with individual ministers, with a corresponding lack of effective parliamentary

checks on the operation of the executive departments. The individual ministries therefore, become in effect, the private domain of the Minister during his incumbency. Extreme compartmentalization, both internally within each ministry and externally among the several ministries, makes the formulation and execution of complex programs very difficult.

One of the principal administrative advantages of a Cabinet form of government—namely, the principle of ministerial responsibility and the definite assignment of responsibility to individual ministries—is in large measure dissipated in Greece by interministerial committees. During the occupation, in attempting to sabotage the will of the German conqueror, many stratagems were adopted within the government organization aimed at making impossible the carrying out of directives issued by occupational authorities. One of the principal methods adopted was diffusion of responsibility and "passing the buck." A practice was initiated of referring all administrative matters to committees for final decision rather than depending upon the action of the appropriate administrator. By this means unpleasant administrative action would be postponed or avoided with no single person responsible for the action or inaction finally resulting. The committee system has continued to expand since the occupation, causing widespread demoralization of administrative machinery.

The Greek Civil Service

FOLLOWING THE END of the German occupation, a succession of outside observers examined the Greek government and its operations and pointed to civil service reform as a prerequisite for any long-term improvement of public administration. These observers included the British Economic Mission, the Porter Mission, and the special mission sent to Greece by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

The civil service has become lethargic and is seemingly incapable of carrying out

in any effective manner the increasingly complex tasks which have been imposed on it by legislation and cabinet decisions. There were 80,000 civil service employees in July 1947, in addition to approximately 60,000 employed by state-owned enterprises and various municipalities and villages. In other words, the national and local governments were employing approximately 140,000 people to carry out national and local public services. This approximates the total number of employees in industry—as many people work for the government as are employed in private business, exclusive of agriculture.

The civil service deteriorated during the German occupation and following liberation because of: (1) the appointment of many unqualified persons to important posts; (2) political interference, both with respect to new appointments and to dismissals and transfers; (3) a promotion system based entirely on seniority, with no recognition for outstanding work and no disciplinary action for idling or poor work; (4) the transfer of many competent civil servants from key posts in the provinces to unessential posts in Athens; (5) the maladjustment of pay scales, whereby the lower grades have been increased many fold and the higher grades, in terms of living costs, actually decreased, forcing employees in higher grades to form numerous useless committees and councils to supplement their regular salaries; and (6) the lack of uniform civil service rules and regulations applying to all government services, with the result that each ministry has established its own set of personnel regulations, and unjustified preferential treatment is given special groups of employees.

As evidences of the underlying deterioration described above, the Greek civil service in its daily functioning presents a discouraging picture. In July, 1947, hours of work totalled approximately 25 per week—from 9:00 A.M. to 1:00 P.M. Employees returning in the afternoon for two hours' work between 5:00 P.M. and 7:00 P.M. were considered to be working

overtime and were paid an extra overtime allowance. All important decisions in the government are referred to committees in order that no one government official will be blamed for the action taken. Much time and many meetings are required to dispose of the simplest matter because the members of the committees and councils receive extra pay for each meeting.

However, the most important factor underlying the civil service breakdown has been the lack of incentive for improving procedures, increasing output, and reducing unit cost. Consciously or unconsciously, procedures are geared to keeping the maximum number of people on the payroll. This philosophy, however, is not confined to the civil service but infiltrates the entire national economy. Many restrictive labor laws are on the statute books which require private industry to maintain employees on its payroll even though they are no longer needed. In a country whose population growth has outstripped natural resources, the emphasis is upon security regardless of efficiency. (Greece trades upon her geographically strategic location and depends upon British and American taxpayers to maintain this uneconomic position.)

A permanent civil service is provided for in the Constitution. Once a satisfactory probationary period is completed, the civil servant assumes permanency of tenure and can be dismissed only by the action of the Administrative Council of the ministry, two-thirds of the members of which must be permanent civil servants. An employee in the higher grades is rarely removed through this process. The only other means by which permanent civil servants may be removed is by the passage of legislation abolishing their posts. This is sometimes done by a new Minister who desires to make certain changes for political reasons. Although security of tenure is fairly well guaranteed by the Constitution, no other attributes of a sound and efficient civil service exist, with the exception of the classification system. There is no central personnel agency. Competitive

examinations are rarely held. Doling out government jobs in return for political favors is an accepted practice.

The classification system which has existed for many years is based upon the British and continental systems; namely, several broad classes, with promotion from one class to another within a general series largely based on seniority. Specific definitions for these classes have been established through the years, and reallocation of a position from one class to another seldom occurs. To a certain extent, the classification of a position is based upon the qualifications of the individual rather than upon the exact duties, responsibilities, and tasks inherent in the position at a particular time.

The general classes or grades of the civil service are as follows:

Director General	Attache	
Director A	Clerk A	
Director B	Clerk B	
Chief of Section A	Chief Usher	
Chief of Section B	Usher A	Doormen, messengers and char- women
Reporter	Usher B	
Secretary A	Usher C	
Secretary B	Usher D	

The rates of pay of civil servants are established by the Minister of Finance. During recent years there has been a tendency to supplement the pay of government employees in rather devious ways in order to conceal the fact that wage increases were being granted. The numerous allowances could also be traced to the extremely legalistic philosophy underlying the entire administrative organization of the government. A study of civil service salary scales made in July 1947 revealed the following constituent allowances going to make up the total salary: (1) basic salary; (2) family allowance; (3) length of service allowance; (4) allowance for duty in northern Greece; (5) pay for service on committees and councils; (6) overtime; (7) allowance for administrative errors (employees handling funds are personally liable for mistakes, and the allowance is designed as compensation for this risk); (8) allowance for purchase of supplies (clerks are required to buy their own pen-

cils, paper, etc., to prevent stealing); (9) Christmas bonus of one month's salary; (10) Easter bonus of one-half month's salary.

Dating from the beginning of the German occupation, the Greek civil servant has been poorly paid. The successive waves of inflation sweeping the country severely handicapped those working under the rather inflexible salary scales of the government. Most of the salary increases granted were concentrated among the lower grades, with the result that scientific, technical, and executive brackets were soon depressed far below the salary levels prevailing in private industry for similar types of work. The following tabulation indicates the compression that occurred between the lower and higher grades:

Grade	Total "Take-Home" Pay per Month (Drachmas)		Increase over Prewar
	1939	1948	
Director General . .	11,595	1,020,000	88.0%
Director A	9,191	816,050	88.8
Clerk B	1,742	331,900	190.5
Ratio of salary of Clerk B to Director General (1939) 1:7			
Ratio of salary of Clerk B to Director General (1948) 1:3			

Promotion in the civil service is based primarily upon seniority. A high school graduate entering the civil service at the grade of clerk is assured of eventual promotion to the grade of Secretary A. A college graduate entering at the grade of Secretary A or B will become a Chief of Section and quite likely a Director if a vacancy occurs. The grade of Director General is the ultimate ambition of all civil servants. However, the number of posts in this grade is very small—usually one to each ministry. Only rarely is a vacancy in the higher grades filled from outside the civil service, despite the desirability of occasionally bringing in new blood to executive positions. Since the Administrative Council in each ministry must approve all new appointments—and civil servants comprise the majority of members in each Council—any deviation

from the seniority principle in effecting promotions is uncommon.

The transfer of civil servants from one ministry to another is usually accomplished through the process of "detailing" instead of an actual transfer, although such loans and detachments may extend over a period of years.

Another great weakness in the civil service is the gravitation of field personnel to Athens and the absence of any planned movement in the opposite direction. Due to higher living standards and greater personal comfort to be enjoyed in the metropolitan area of the capital, civil servants appointed in the provinces quickly develop the ambition to get transferred to Athens. The ministries are under constant pressure to effect these transfers. Those actually made usually are the result of political pressure or outstanding work in the field area. The problem would not be so serious if there occurred a movement of equal proportions from Athens to the provinces. A tour of duty in a provincial office would constitute valuable background for officials engaged in planning and administering nation-wide programs. However, any attempt to transfer an employee from Athens to one of the field offices meets with the most determined opposition. This opposition was heightened during the occupation and the waves of inflation which followed it because rent increases in the capital area were frozen, whereas rents in the provinces were left uncontrolled. A civil servant moving from Athens to the provinces makes a considerable financial sacrifice if he finds it necessary to give up his house in Athens and rent a new one at his field station. Also, the tendency of field employees to come to Athens has been accelerated by the guerrilla warfare. The final result of these conditions is the draining away of the more competent employees from the field service without replacement and a continuing increase in the surplus of civil servants in Athens.

Annual and sick leave provisions under existing legislation are very liberal. Em-

ployees are granted 30 days (noncumulative) of annual leave per year, although by administrative regulation they have been prevented from taking more than 15 days. One month of sick leave is granted for each year of service, with varying and flexible provisions as to cumulation. In addition, all medical and funeral expenses of permanent employees are borne by the state, and employees suffering from tuberculosis are placed on extended sick leave with pay.

The government takes holidays at the slightest provocation. The number of holidays observed by public offices approximates 35 per year, many of which are religious in nature. The government observes about twice as many holidays as does private industry, for a large number of religious days are not considered of sufficient importance by businesses and shops to warrant holiday observance.

Reforms Attempted by the American Mission

IMMEDIATELY upon the arrival of the Mission in Athens, it became apparent that the overstaffed and inefficient civil service was not capable of carrying on the day-to-day operations of the government, not to mention the expanded and vigorous military and economic programs needed at that time. American aid supplies were being held in warehouses and distribution to the public could not be effected because the jobs of hundreds of custodial and inventory clerks of the Ministry of Supply would cease to exist if the warehouses were emptied! Government ministries, by tenaciously holding onto these supplies, causing them to rot in warehouses and rust on the docks, were literally wasting millions of American dollars. Obviously, both emergency and long-range improvements in the civil service system were imperative, and, naturally, first attention had to be directed to emergency measures.

The most pressing problem was a requested increase in civil service salaries since employee unions were threatening

to strike if their demands were not met. After considerable negotiation with the government, it was agreed that budgetary expenditures would be increased by one hundred billion drachmae (\$10,000,000) to cover the salary raises, provided the government would take certain immediate steps toward alleviating abuses within the civil service. The measures which the government agreed to take comprised: (1) a freeze on all new appointments; (2) reduction of civil service strength by 15,000; (3) elimination of overtime pay; (4) reduction of committee pay; (5) institution of a 40-hour work week.

Only one of these measures was carried out and that was accomplished only by virtue of the direct participation of the American Mission. In providing for a freeze on all new appointments, a procedure was established whereby representatives from the Ministry of Finance and of the Mission would meet once a month to review all requests for new appointments and decide which cases were of a sufficiently emergency nature to justify approval. Such a system was applied over a period of several months, during which time approximately 15 per cent of the requests were approved and 85 per cent disapproved. In practically all cases, the disapproval action was initiated by the American representatives. A good start was made in reducing the size of the payroll. Approximately 8,000 temporary employees were dismissed. Satisfaction with this progress was short-lived, however, when it became apparent that through political pressure many of the dismissed employees were being placed on the payrolls of milling and baking concerns operating under strict government supervision and subsidized from the government's budget.

After many of the temporary employees had been separated from the various ministries, an attempt was made to continue the reduction in force by dismissal of permanent employees, many of whom had been granted permanent status, but there was no real justification for their

position. The Cabinet refused to consider this proposal on the ground that Parliament would not approve any impairment of the constitutional right of permanency of tenure. (It might be noted here that several thousand civil servants had been dismissed previously and replaced because of suspected communist activities. This purge had been made possible by parliamentary "suspension" of the constitutional provision concerning permanency of tenure.) In effect, the government was unwilling to take the unpopular action necessary to carry out its agreement to reduce personnel, and undoubtedly only suspension of certain types of American aid would have been sufficient to enforce compliance.

The institution of a 40-hour week was resisted. Despite an order of the Prime Minister placing employees on a 40-hour week schedule, ministries continued to close their doors at 1:00 P.M., and only part of the employees returned to work in the evening. Likewise with respect to the elimination of overtime pay, employee resistance tended to defeat the measure. Customs employees and postal workers both engaged in "sit-down" strikes to force restoration of pay for fictitious overtime. Recently, the Cabinet approved the restoration of overtime pay throughout the government. Lacking political courage (except for the Minister of Finance), the government was willing to pay only lip service to the principle of increased productivity by its employees. However, it must be admitted that to reduce take-home pay during a period of inflation is practically impossible in any jurisdiction regardless of compelling budgetary reasons to the contrary.

Realizing that emergency measures heretofore described offered no permanent solution to the problem, the Mission, soon after its arrival, began a study of existing legislation and the extent to which such laws were being obeyed. Personnel procedures were studied in connection with organization and methods surveys of the various ministries. As a result of several

months' study, a comprehensive civil service law was drafted and recommended to the government for enactment. The draft law was patterned in some respects upon civil service legislation adopted by several American states and in many other respects upon the continental civil service philosophy. The principal provisions of the proposed law were:

1. Creation of an independent Civil Service Commission with complete quasi-judicial and investigatory authority over all personnel matters in the government and its independent agencies.

2. Establishment of a Civil Service Division in the Ministry of Finance, such Division to constitute an executive and control agency for the Commission. The head of the Division—the Civil Service Director—would be administratively responsible to the Minister of Finance but removable only by the Commission. The central organization for personnel management proposed for Greece was very similar to the Treasury administration of civil service in Great Britain.

3. Conference upon the Civil Service Director and Budget Director of responsibility for determining the number and grade of positions in each Ministry. At present this determination is made by Parliament through legislation.

4. Prohibition of enactment by the Cabinet of any decrees or regulations on civil service matters without the prior review and approval of the Civil Service Commission.

5. Establishment of a uniform system of pay grades, administered jointly by personnel and budgetary authorities in the Ministry of Finance, and elimination of all extra pay for service on committees and councils.

6. Requirement that all new appointments to the government service be made from the top of eligible lists established by open competitive examinations administered by the central personnel agency.

7. Requirement that all promotions be made from eligible lists that are established by competitive promotional examinations

administered by the central personnel agency.

8. Establishment of a right of appeal to the Civil Service Commission for a public hearing by any employee or examination applicant, with the decision of the Commission being final. The Commission would be empowered to order and obtain the reinstatement of any employee found to be wrongfully dismissed.

9. A considerable reduction in existing holiday and leave privileges of civil servants.

Here again, efforts of the Mission toward permanent civil service improvement were notably unsuccessful. The principal objections to the proposed legislation reflected the unwillingness of ministers to surrender authority to a central personnel agency. Even more basic, however, was the unwillingness of the government to adopt any legislation which would reduce the size of the civil service establishment.

Conclusions

WE HAVE REVIEWED the efforts of the United States Government to help another government improve and overhaul its civil service system in the hope that governmental machinery might facilitate rather than hamper the achievement of economic recovery. These efforts have failed for a variety of reasons and circumstances. What are the lessons of this failure, and how may they be applied in future undertakings of this sort? To fail again, elsewhere, would hamper our entire technical assistance program and impair American prestige and relationships with friendly foreign countries.

Before developing guide lines for future action, a most basic question must be resolved. Should the United States Government *require* countries receiving economic aid to take steps to improve or modify governmental practices where such practices are either handicapping economic recovery or wasting American aid funds and thereby increasing or prolonging the need for financial assistance? On

the one hand, the sovereignty and dignity of recipient countries must be respected; on the other, the interests of American taxpayers must be protected. This is a question of United States foreign policy and far beyond the scope of this paper. However, its answer will determine our approach in extending technical assistance to other countries in the general field of public administration. If we require remedial action on the part of the country to be assisted, with the threat of curtailment of aid in case of noncompliance, the approach and techniques to be applied will not differ markedly from those now used by the federal government in administering state grant-in-aid programs.

However, assuming that the question is decided in the negative—namely, that public administration improvement will be encouraged but never required—the framework of our policy and strategy becomes equally clear. First, a country must not be pressured or “sold” on requesting American assistance to improve governmental practices. No such venture has even a remote chance of success unless it has the complete and sincere support of the head of the government and the cabinet and unless they are willing to take the courageous and often politically unpalatable steps involved in such a program. In the case of Greece, for example, the government professed adherence to a principle, but it knew at the time assistance was requested that real governmental reform and retrenchment would be practically impossible to achieve.

Second, our approach to the problem must be patient and extremely tactful and objectives set at a very conservative level. To attempt immediate and sweeping reforms arouses such concerted opposition from affected interests that the entire program is quickly hamstrung. The initial suspicion and animosity within the middle and lower echelons of administration are much greater than would be experienced, let us say, by a group of out-of-

state consultants employed to conduct a reorganization survey of one of our state or municipal jurisdictions. Although American “know-how” enjoys a relatively high degree of prestige throughout Western Europe, it is generally viewed as most applicable to “those inefficient fellows across the street.” Factors of national and personal pride must be reckoned with seriously.

Third, the techniques employed by the advisers must be those of improvising and adapting rather than transplanting. The political theories, legal systems, and commercial and office practices, particularly on the Continent, are so radically different from our own that a great many methods which have worked well in American government are completely inapplicable. This is true to a surprising extent even in subject matter fields much more precise than public administration. Instead of attempting to install systems, the advisers should endeavor to develop an “incentive for improvement,” showing the kinds of things which can be accomplished through management studies and work simplification, for example. In other words, the objective should be to stimulate demand rather than to sell a particular brand of product. If this and the other preceding considerations are not applied carefully by the adviser, not only is he due for thorough disillusionment, but the effectiveness of the entire technical assistance program is also limited commensurately.

Conversely, if a public administration improvement program is applied successfully, the economic and political dividends will be tremendous. Strengthening of governmental machinery in ERP-participating countries will enable the public services to contribute their full and proper share in the struggle toward economic independence. The country will also be in a much better position to withstand the onslaught of disruptive political agitation.

Recreation for Public Employees G. LARRY ZUCH

GOVERNMENT today with its rapid expansion into the many heretofore unexplored fields of science, economy, and even the formerly "verboten" factors of everyday social existence, has made employee administration considerably more complex. The technological advances have eclipsed by far the progress made in the field of social and cultural pursuits and also that made in personnel administration. War activities necessarily brought about this condition. History, as we are well aware, has taught us that with every war or national crisis we may anticipate a comparable period of radical readjustment. On the other hand, each upheaval has resulted in major improvements and a better understanding of objectives which were progressive by nature.

These tenets have long been accepted by most federal personnel officials; however, because of the wartime demands for immediate needs and production many good personnel practices were relegated to the sidelines, either to be forgotten or dusted off and placed back into use after the war. Their immediate problems were recruiting, housing, and keeping employees on the job to accomplish their main objective—production. This, we know, won battles and ultimately resulted in victory. Too little credit, however, has been given to the men behind the guns for their contribution; neither have many medals been awarded to administrators. Instead, they are now confronted with another important and vital issue which strikes close to the roots of American de-

mocracy—the postwar reconstruction period—which demands countless readjustments. Even though we have won the war, the victory of peace is not as yet won nor will it be won until this postwar reconstruction has been completed. The key to this challenge is the people, and to turn this key we must depend largely upon the ever dependable personnel official.

Even during the war, federal personnel officials, generally speaking, realized that there would be a postwar problem. War responsibilities made personnel available from a patriotic point of view and funds seemed inexhaustible. Victory, however, would prove a let down. With patriotism no longer a factor, homesick, displaced civilian personnel would abruptly return to their families and homes, never realizing that such an exodus might disrupt government in Washington. Due to the foresight of federal government officials, this possibility was anticipated and forestalled. A major factor in this accomplishment was the medium of recreation.

Origin of the Federal Recreation Committee

WORLD WAR II, by necessity, made our federal government the largest operating concern in the world. Sound administration and the best utilization of personnel and material resources became necessary to produce the ultimate in results for achieving an early victory. With this in mind, administrators and top personnel officials concerned themselves with the health, morale, welfare, and social integration of the tens of thousands of civilian employees who were brought to the nation's capital to help in the war. Before hostilities, personnel officials had no reason to consider these responsibilities with alarm; however, when thousands of new

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employees from many sections of the country descended upon Washington determined to do their patriotic duty, personnel problems became complex and realistically acute. Handicapped by public opinion and its misconception of recreation, personnel officials were admittedly retarded in their efforts to integrate this function as an important device toward keeping the new employee on the job and in Washington. However, using the success of the armed services with their productive and far-reaching recreation programs as an example, federal personnel officials were successful in having recreation accepted as an extremely valuable function for civil service employees as well as for military personnel. Accordingly, in 1943, in response to recommendations from officials of the federal and District of Columbia governments and also from autonomous employee and community groups, the Federal Recreation Committee was formed by the Federal Personnel Council (an organization of personnel directors representing all governmental departments and the representatives of the Civil Service Commission and the Bureau of the Budget). This Federal Recreation Committee was to "represent both federal employees and administration, in so far as practicable," and "to serve as a central coordinating and planning body on recreation and leisure-time activities for government employees."

Wartime Activities

DURING THE WAR YEARS the Federal Recreation Committee's monthly meetings were well attended by members and alternates assigned from each federal agency. Many were hired and paid by their respective agencies to do a full-time job of planning recreation activities and programs to stimulate the war employee's morale. A close contact was developed between these leaders and their agency's employees as well as between the representatives of the various governmental bureaus represented on the committee. The monthly meetings provided an oppor-

tunity to describe agency activities and to pool and exchange ideas on effective programs which could be initiated. Thus, the Federal Recreation Committee started to do the much needed job, heretofore unrecognized in government of solving federal employee relations problems by bringing management and the worker together by means of planned, well-controlled, and morale-building recreation programs. It was a splendid beginning. Many of the Federal Recreation Committee members themselves were new to Washington. This reflected favorably since they proved ambitious in constantly activating new groups and interests for the "away-from-home war worker." Considerable information was disseminated on extracurricular recreational facilities and activities available in the Washington area, and this information was later compiled into an excellent ready-reference directory.

Due to wartime pressures, recreation needs were more or less met on a daily or week-to-week basis as the needs demanded. Little time was left for over-all planning and research since all available time was utilized in planning dances and other recreational activities, not only for service men and women, but more often for the young, homesick, and lonesome girls in civil service. Older women employees made their wartime situations more compatible by serving as hostesses and chaperones. Local civic recreation facilities were utilized to the point of disrupting their effectiveness. In spite of all efforts, however, the various surveys which were attempted on recreation needs, improvements in cafeterias, daylight savings, etc., resulted in no positive actions because of the pressure of immediate and current needs.

Changes Brought About by Postwar Developments

THE CESSATION OF HOSTILITIES brought with it new problems to plague personnel administrators. An over-all resetting of sights in Washington's many federal agencies became a necessity almost overnight.

Many employees promptly returned to their homes and friends, creating acute recruiting problems in certain types of semiskilled positions. Some of these shortages exist even now. Cutbacks in other types of personnel with their "reduction in force" lists became most worrisome. Budgetary prohibitions provided many headaches. These, together with other problems, had an unfavorable effect on thousands of war service employees of all levels. Many became deeply concerned about their immediate problems. How long would they have their jobs? How would they obtain permanent civil service status? Should they try to find work in their home towns? Many had difficult home adjustments to make; their housing was still inadequate and left much to be desired in comfort and convenience. Their entire environment became a series of unhappy comparisons and frustrations. Officials needed all available manpower to compensate for decreased production caused by lowered morale as well as depleted staffs. This deployment of trained personnel had a retarding effect on the Federal Recreation Committee. Membership and attendance at meetings dropped steadily. In spite of the continued interest of most members, it became more and more difficult for them to attend meetings regularly because of the pressure of work in their own agencies. Keeping up the work and activities of the committee became quite discouraging. Recreation was slowly but surely being shoved into the background as nonessential now that the war was over. There seemed to be a constantly growing belief that recreation was intended only as a war service measure.

Committee members, having been in close touch with employees and their problems, realized however that the benefits of recreation were needed now just as much as during the war. The executive committee, despite many discouraging encounters, continued its regular meetings and laid definite plans for the future. In analyzing the situation in its entirety, it was found that although an excellent job

had been accomplished in providing a medium for the dissemination and exchange of recreational information, in the past the committee had neglected to carry on creative programs which would stimulate active interest in recreation. It therefore ceased being a mere "pipeline." The need for providing direct, complete recreational services, operating within the framework of the agencies became a reality, and the committee became a direct operating group. Full utilization of facilities within agencies as well as in the community was encouraged. The employee was not only made aware of them; he was also stimulated and instructed in their use.

This change in policy bore definite results in the next few months. In dealing with the many intangibles of recreation, it soon became apparent that in order to make the programs virile and productive they must necessarily be well known, understood, and accepted by key people in the respective agencies. This was accomplished by doing some creative program planning on projects and activities which were sound and which, in turn, could be evaluated in terms of effectiveness. Recognition of the importance of these programs to management promptly followed. Today, due to the farsightedness of personnel and other administrative officials, these stimulating programs are integrating into government with a unified objective—the development of people so that they may better serve government in whatever capacity they are best fitted and to help them realize a well-balanced and full life as citizens.

Current Activities of the Committee

IN ORDER TO MAINTAIN a broad viewpoint toward recreation and also to acquaint members with local facilities and organizations, meetings are frequently held at various government agencies and with local civic recreational groups. This personal contact with operating officials affords an opportunity for the mutual exchange of ideas and provides a knowl-

edge of recreation facilities which might be available for inter-agency use. Meetings have also been held aboard a boat and a large four-engined transport plane to make a survey of river, outdoor, and vacation recreation facilities. Occasionally visual aids and movies of a recreational or instructional nature are shown at meetings. They are provided by private industry as well as government, and range in subject from "Telephone Courtesy," to the Navy Department's "Atom Bomb Tests," and a film, "Problem Drinkers," furnished by the Washington Committee for Education on Alcoholism.

Many other leisure-time activities are initiated in the various agencies and include self-improvement lectures, variety shows, classes in public speaking, public relations, foreign languages, bridge, ballroom dancing, choral and orchestral music, and many other arts and crafts. Varied hobbies are also encouraged as are all forms of athletics and sports events.

Speakers prominent in related fields of endeavor, including personnel directors, appear on programs presenting interesting subjects useful in employee administration work. Typical topics discussed are "Off the Job Living;" "Recreation as an Aid to Stability;" "The Psychology of the Government Employee;" and "The Value of Recreation Programs to Government."

Numerous communications are received from business concerns and organizations offering substantial discounts to employee groups on their merchandise or services. All of these offers are thoroughly investigated. The large majority are legitimate, but occasionally some are determined to be undesirable. Contacts and information on approved organizations are channeled by members to their agency's cooperative purchasing groups who, in turn, disseminate it to employees. This central investigating point keeps the "gyp artists" away from the unsuspecting employee, protects operating officials, and relieves them from time-wasting interviews in determining the credibility of such concerns and their products.

Many agencies still do not have active employee recreation groups. An advisory board or consulting service was created which, upon request, furnishes technical guidance in establishing clubs or associations in interested agencies. A consultant with the "know how" is sent to their assistance with a complete ready-to-use program, adaptable to the immediate needs of the agency, including a constitution and by-laws. As a result, clubs become activated within a week or two, and employee interest is kept at a high level because the usual long, drawn out bickering periods have been eliminated.

It is expected that for the year ending June 30, 1949, approximately 100,000 passes and tickets will have been distributed to employees through their agencies. They were for ice hockey, wrestling, movies, square dancing, concerts, theatres, and exhibits. Television and radio quiz programs were also promoted on an agency-wide basis and proved very popular.

Surveys, studies, and inquiries are continually being made on subjects covering a wide field. One which proved of great value was the compilation of area facilities and activities that do not operate on a racial segregation basis. This was considered most useful to agencies having large complements of Negro employees. Another survey indicated that the vast majority of employees favored daylight savings time.

Current projects and future plans that the committee will be concerned with are summarized as follows:

Complete Survey of All Federal Recreation Interests. This survey now under way will cover all departmental clubs, associations, credit unions, etc. It is designed to provide information on programs, facilities, the degree of employee participation, and many other statistics. After study and evaluation, the material will be used to help formulate standardized and general guidance policies and practices on federal recreation. A directory will also be compiled listing all operating groups, facili-

ties, and related welfare organizations. Better utilization of available space in government buildings for employee after-hours' activities should also result.

Government Cafeterias. Several bills were recently introduced in Congress to establish a federal agency to administer and supervise cafeterias and recreation facilities located on government property. A committee has been appointed to study these proposals and to present their findings to the legislative groups concerned so that they may have some guidance in establishing an acceptable as well as workable plan and to assist in administering these plans if called upon to do so.

Programs for Older Government Workers. This study was initiated to stimulate the middle-aged and older employees into active participation in recreation programs that are being especially designed to meet their needs and abilities. This, it is believed, will materially assist them in keeping a bright outlook on life and on their jobs in particular. It will also help to extend their lives after retirement.

Washington Sesquicentennial Celebration for 1950. Plans are already under way for this celebration, and we were told government departments and employees are to have an important part therein. The Federal Recreation Committee is to assist in providing agency exhibits, housing, employee participation, and recreational outlets. The committee may also be called upon to act as a liaison between the state societies and the governors and to interest employees in helping to prepare floats, securing hotel accommodations for state functions, etc.

State-wide Survey of Virginia. This progressive neighboring state has in recent years become a veritable vacationland for the thousands of government workers and others domiciled in the nation's capital. They have invited the committee to conduct this survey of vacation, recreation, and historic sight-seeing spots of Virginia as their guests. There will be two parts to the tour—the first to cover the eastern sec-

tion of the state and the second the western portion.

Award for Outstanding Service in Field of Federal Recreation. A suitable trophy has recently been donated to the committee for presentation to the person or organization having contributed most to recreation for federal employees on a government-wide basis during the past year. Plans are under way and a committee has been appointed to prepare presentation procedures and study other problems involved. It is highly probable that this award will be continued on an annual basis.

As can readily be seen, the Federal Recreation Committee has not confined itself to merely discussing recreation in the usually accepted narrow sense but has directed its efforts to the much broader field of employee administration.

Objectives

IT IS BELIEVED that organized recreation programs for government employees have attained the stature and experience necessary for acceptance as standard personnel practice, and that they are now definitely a permanent fixture in employee administration functions. These gains should be rapidly extended since many things remain to be accomplished. One of the most important steps is to raise recreation standards. Government service heretofore has not shown much expansion in the application of recreation techniques. Governmental management throughout the country must be made to realize that a healthy, happy, contented employee is a productive employee. Most certainly if industry found it advisable and economical to follow this course of action, government, too, should recognize the fact and should become the leader in the field of employee recreation and administration. A few of the objectives to be concentrated on and accomplished to bring about full recognition of the importance of recreation and its effectiveness are: (1) the creation of prototype Federal Recreation Committees in all metropoli-

tan areas; (2) promotion and conduct of inter-agency activities on a considerably expanded scale; and (3) management recognition of the value of recreation as a therapy since, like public health and educational facilities, recreation is both an operation of good government and an accepted therapeutical technique for conserving our human resources.

Much needs to be done on coordinating and standardizing employee publications or house organs. These bulletins are of prime importance, for they assist the employee in the proper utilization of his leisure time in creative and other types of beneficial avocations. Failure to supply recreational outlets might readily contribute to personality complexes or at least a dissatisfied and incompetent employee. Another objective which is too often overlooked is to bring commercial recreation within the reach of the usually low-salaried government employee. A great percentage of them cannot afford to "buy" recreation at its present high prices. If the homespun type of recreation is not available, they may resort to vicarious forms of entertainment which might prove detrimental to their health and would definitely impair their working ability.

It is paradoxical that while these recreational activities are deemed important to the government in dollars and cents saved through increased production, efficiency, and improved morale, the salaried federal recreation worker is practically nonexistent. With the exception of perhaps two, the remaining fifty-odd members of the Federal Recreation Committee are occupied in other work on a full-time basis. Neither does the Committee have funds for clerical assistance. All staff work is accomplished by members who devote many of their after-work hours to committee correspondence and assignments.

In view of this condition, perhaps the prime objective to be sought is a recognition of the need for full-time recreation leaders. Qualified workers or employee administration specialists will not prove

an added expense to government but could actually result in budgetary savings. Several observations upon which this premise is based are:

1. By localizing recreation responsibilities and placing them upon a professional leader, many lost manhours and thousands of dollars which now go down the drain could be saved since the widely dispersed and uncontrolled recreation activities of employees could be eliminated.

2. A considerable fiscal saving could be realized from the material, equipment, and manhours now being wasted in producing unauthorized, unsupervised, unproductive employee notices and house organs.

3. Recreation has a tremendous value as a therapy as well as a morale builder. It can be assumed without fear of contradiction that the happier, healthier (mentally as well as physically) employee is more skillful, more effective, and more productive. The saving in increased productivity alone would pay a specialist's salary. Add to this the saving resulting from reduced absenteeism and we have another excellent justification for including a recreation worker in our next budget estimates.

4. Good fellowship brings about a wide acquaintance among employees. This shortens operational lines and eliminates much of the so-called departmental red tape. Knowing the fellow in the other department and knowing his job, considerably widens an employee's source of information and scope of operation, thereby producing a type of efficiency which is reflected in dollars saved.

5. The cost of personnel administration for each employee is carefully watched by personnel administrators who try to reduce the figure whenever possible. Since recreation is definitely a part of good management, since it improves the attitude of the employee toward the personnel office, it would be well to consider its value to management. Certainly, it should minimize dissatisfaction, complaints, grievances, inefficiency, and the

many related employee problems that increase operational costs.

Conclusion

MOST TOP-SIDE GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS understand the Federal Recreation Committee's many problems and are wholeheartedly cooperating in the promotion of better employee administration. Besides budgetary limitations, many other problems have handicapped them and precluded the assignment of personnel to this work. Nevertheless, through their appointment of representatives to this committee, they have interpreted and met the needs of federal employees to an admirable extent in providing assistance for the development and planning of their programs of healthful and morale-building leisure-time activities.

The individual employee on the other hand evaluates his situation in terms comparable to the degree of satisfaction he obtains from his economic, social, and

recreational desires. It must, therefore, be acknowledged that people work for money, recognition, or to satisfy a creative desire which produces enthusiasm. Men will go a long way for the important dollar, but they will go still farther for recognition. If poor morale crops up in an organization, it more than likely has resulted from the ineffectiveness of policies, procedures, and practices and the loss of confidence of the employee in those who administer them. They feel they have been neglected, left out of the picture so to speak, and have not been given recognition for their accomplishments. One dissatisfied employee, like the bad apple, can be harmful to the harmony of the entire organization and perhaps sabotage its objectives to a large extent. Employees, like children, are largely what they are trained to be. Can recreation help control this problem? The members of the Federal Recreation Committee are firm in their belief that it can.

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Time to Rethink Minimum Requirements . JOHN M. POSEGATE

THIS ARTICLE is frankly designed to stir up further discussion—and controversy, if need be—on a subject which, in the opinion of the writer, badly needs thinking through by those in the field of personnel administration. It is a plea for personnel people to break away from traditional concepts, to attempt to relate minimum requirements more specifically to what the job itself actually requires, and to think through what minimum requirements in a going merit system should do, and what they should not do.

Many minimum requirements now in existence are based on concepts that grew out of depression times. When supply was much greater than demand, employers felt they could be as "choosy" and arbitrary as they wished. However, depression or no depression, public employers really can't afford to cast aside, on any arbitrary basis, potentially qualified employees.

Minimums Should Be Minimums

A FIRST AND MOST ELEMENTARY observation is that minimum requirements should actually be minimums. They should be merely the first rough sifter in the selection process—if the latter process is effectively in operation. Minimum requirements should weed out from further consideration those—and only those—who clearly can't handle the job. All too many specifications, however, seem to represent just the other extreme, that of providing a word description of the perfect employee—as though describing him would produce him!

It must be recognized that available individuals who most nearly possess all of

the high qualifications that one could desire will (to the extent that the latter can be properly tested or evaluated) come to the top anyway in the selection process; they don't have to be called for in minimum requirements. To establish unnecessary minimums is to risk eliminating, right at the start, a part of an often meager supply of individuals capable of doing a job. Doctors are reputed to bury their mistakes. Personnel people never know how many capable men and women they may be burying by wielding arbitrary minimum requirements.

Education and Experience Requirements

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS for many general types of positions can hardly be absolute minimums if they unnecessarily eliminate, because of arbitrarily established education and experience requirements, any potential recruits that are needed. In this article I shall present, as best I know how, the argument that, for many general administrative-type jobs at least, formalized education and experience requirements have assumed a greatly overemphasized importance in the selection process. They can hardly be expected to be a reliable index to good performance, and they restrict open competition.

For the great mass of administrative and clerical jobs that are not highly specialized, it is time that we ask, "Do three years, say, of college and three years of experience, make an individual any more capable or any better qualified than do two years of each?" We need to ask further, "Does the fact that an individual happens to have worked for two years, or five years for that matter, at something, automatically prove that he is more capable for that work than someone who hasn't?" A third question we can well ask

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is, "Does just going to, or even graduating from, college really prove much of anything that couldn't in any case be much better established by equitable and sound testing methods?" I think the answer is "No" in all three cases.

Are Years of Schooling a Measure of Ability? If the amount of schooling an individual has had can be established to be an index of general mental capacity that is at all dependable, then a merit system examining staff has, in this respect, something tangible to work on. Some relationship probably exists; however, at least for the college and upper high school levels, it can be nothing more than a very remote one. Psychological examinations¹ given annually to freshmen in over 300 colleges have revealed some very interesting things. For example, the tests, uniformly applied throughout the country, provided in 1945 a mean score of 99+ for all who took the tests. However, there was a tremendous variation in the mean scores for the freshmen in various schools—from 127+ for the college at the top of the list, to decidedly less than half that figure (27, in fact) for the college at the bottom of the list. If the colleges vary so greatly in the capacities of their incoming students, they must of necessity also vary greatly in the level of work that the students are given and are able to accomplish and the level of work required for graduation and, hence, in the significance of the degree awarded. It would appear obvious that testing is a better means of discovering the individual's mental capacity than a quantitative scoring of the number of years of schooling to which he has been subjected.

How Valuable Is Experience? Experience is something everybody wants more of. We like to think of ourselves as having been "through it all" and knowing "what it means." Experience does have much to offer. Some people, like blotters, absorb much. Others unfortunately tend to be rather nonabsorbent.

¹ See the reports distributed annually by the American Council on Education, entitled, *Psychological Examinations for College Freshmen*.

It is risky business drawing too many assumptions about the benefits of experience. Experience can provide many intangible, but nevertheless definite, assets, such as broadened vision, deeper understanding of human nature, and better conception of working relationships. It can provide practical knowledge of supervisory and administrative techniques; it can develop ability to organize work, ability to sell programs and ideas, etc. But it doesn't necessarily do so. It all depends upon the individual. Many go through a lifetime of work experiences and gain all too little from them. Others gain rich benefits from limited experiences and from the ordinary contacts of life itself.

It must be recognized that experience can be just as harmful as it can be beneficial, depending again upon the individual. It can crystallize wrong concepts, conventionalize one's thinking, deaden vision, get one into a mental rut, or develop an autocratic attitude.

How About Quality of Performance? The quality of performance in past work experiences—to the extent that it can be determined—would seem to be of more real significance than the mere possession of a specific quantity of experience, or even of a specific type of experience, in many cases. It is questionable whether many merit system agencies have explored very far the possibilities of personal investigation of past work performance. There are those who will throw up their hands and say this sort of thing is "subjective." Granted that it is very difficult in many cases to determine the quality of work an individual has done, that it is difficult to segregate bias from truth, and that personal investigations are perhaps too expensive a proposition for most lower-level positions; nevertheless, it is the opinion of the writer that there is much of significance that can be discovered and properly evaluated through intelligent and fairminded investigation.

Requiring Familiarity with a Given Field of Work. In highly specialized fields of work it is, of course, much more neces-

sary for a new employee to have specialized training or experience, or both, than it is in more general fields. The less specialized the field becomes, the easier it is for a new employee, if he is capable, to become familiar with the work after going on the job. Obviously, in a great many fields, particularly those concerned with general administration, specialized experience is of limited significance compared with the individual's ability to do a good job. An alert individual "catches on" quickly and gets acquainted with the work in a relatively short time.

Unfortunately, it is only human nature for people to think of their own particular lines of work as being highly specialized—"different" so to speak—from most other lines of work, and therefore requiring much specialized training and experience.

The Danger of Inbreeding

THE MORE THAT free competition is obstructed through the building of walls around unnecessarily narrowed fields of specialized administrative work, the greater the danger becomes of reaping bad effects from inbreeding. Patterns of thought tend to become set. Those in the field are apt to get so close to the trees that they often don't see the forest.

Any field of work, or for that matter any organization, needs a certain amount of new blood flowing into it, and the flow shouldn't by any means be restricted to the entrance level jobs. Frequently, minimum requirements for jobs up the line are so restrictive as to the types of admissible experience that few, if any, outsiders have much of a chance to be considered. Overemphasis on promotions within the agency, to the exclusion of consideration of capable outsiders, can seriously endanger the vitality of an organization. A freshness of viewpoint can often more than offset a lack of detailed knowledge of a given line of work in a specific field or agency.

The fact that an individual has had experience or training in a given field does not in itself establish the fact that he has

the basic capacity for high quality performance in that field. Too many of us can recall too many cases of square pegs jammed into round holes or, what is more painfully the case, of little men rattling around in big jobs, to accept such a conclusion. There are people who happen to get into a given line of governmental administrative work who haven't any decided capacity for high quality performance but who manage to hang on year after year and build up an experience record that looks quite impressive on paper. Once some experience is gained by such an individual, his employment advantage multiplies greatly as additional experience is gained.

If there is a really plentiful supply of generally capable individuals who are available, those who are familiar with the particular type of work in question are naturally to be preferred. Nevertheless, selection on the basis of familiarity with a field of work shouldn't take precedence for any level of job over the basic objective of selecting capable individuals. Neither should it override the continuing problem of drawing in a certain amount of new blood up and down the line.

What Does the Job Itself Require?

ASSUMING that formalized education and experience requirements are deemphasized, where they are now overemphasized, the question arises as to what minimum requirements should be set. There is no way of providing a realistic answer to that question without determining through careful analysis what the job itself is and what, specifically, it demands of the individual who occupies it. The problem of determining minimum requirements is inseparable from the problem of establishing the whole of the selection process. Until we can determine the types of things that a given job requires of an individual, we are hardly in a position to set in realistic manner minimums that may be needed for any of those requirements.²

² For a discussion of new techniques of determining job requirements, see Eldon E. Swezey, "Devel-

All too often, the setting of job requirements has degenerated into a routine proposition of "writing specifications." This may produce a beautiful pattern of internal consistency so far as minimum requirements go, but what it means in terms of finding and hiring the most capable people is a horse of another color.

Careful analysis may indicate that a job requires any combination of such personal attributes as general reasoning power; knowledge (either of general information or of specific facts); skills of various types; certain concepts or attitudes (such as a comprehension of broad objectives and a progressive approach to problems); emotional stability; openmindedness; and an ability to put ideas across, inspire others and get results.

Personnel administrators should be thinking more in terms of the minimums of these qualities and combinations of qualities which will accomplish the specific job, and seek to eliminate only those individuals who clearly don't measure up.

The First Screen. The absolute minimum that carries the best hope of being valid and that is easily applied should serve as the first screen in the selection process.

In specialized fields, an absolute minimum pertaining to specialized training and experience that is definitely needed can, of course, most easily be applied as a first screen. Where funds and staff permit, possession of that required minimum would preferably be determined through appropriate tests of the specialized skills or knowledge required, rather than by reviewing the paper record of quantity and type of training and experience shown.

In the more general administrative lines of work, a minimum score on a test of general mental capacity would certainly appear to be a more valid measure to apply as a first screen than would a superficial counting of time served in educational institutions or in specified types of

jobs. (Tests now being given by colleges and some merit systems to determine whether veterans without a requisite formal education have an equivalent of the same are a step in this direction.)

Must They Be Pretrained? The process of determining what the job requires of the individual should, in my opinion, always include the making of a decision on these two basic questions: (1) What essential attributes are there that the new-comer *must* possess, if at all possible, when he is employed for the job; and what is their relative importance? (2) What other attributes (knowledges, skills, etc.) *could* he, if need be, acquire after selection through a reasonable amount of training and on-the-job experience; and what is the relative ease with which they could be acquired? (The job analysis sheet should be so designed as to set these things out in bold relief.)

A decision on these questions provides a sound basis for an integrated in-service training and staff development program. It makes good induction procedures possible. It provides a basis for making special job assignments for training purposes of newly selected supervisory staff. And, most important of all perhaps, as broad competition as the law of supply and demand may require is available for seeking out people with basic capacity but lacking specific job knowledge. At the same time, it is possible to cut down on training and ask more of candidates before selection whenever sufficient supplies of capable people become available. When available recruits are scarce, as is now usually the case, it seems imperative that nothing be required as a minimum before selection that can be trained into an individual after selection.

(As an example of the validity of this technique, consider the selection for employment in our own particular field of personnel administration. Isn't it true that a basically capable individual having the right characteristics can, with an adequate training plan, enter the field—not only at the bottom but on higher rungs

as well—and do a successful job? I think so.)

In the remainder of this article, some of the far-reaching ill effects that I believe can—and do—result from hastily conceived minimum requirements are discussed. They represent pitfalls that those who analyze jobs and plan and administer the selection process should take every precaution to avoid.

Barriers to Free and Open Competition

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS can become instruments that in actual practice operate to choke off, rather than to nurture, effective competition among the most capable individuals available.

Sometimes the tail is allowed to wag the dog. Unnecessary minimum requirements become in large measure a primary selection device, taking the place of actual testing and evaluation of capacity and performance. Competition can't be effective if relatively superficial considerations are allowed to keep capable people from being given realistic consideration.

What are some of the types of unwarranted minimum requirements that can help to choke off effective competition at its source?

1. Unnecessary minimums as to formal education.
2. Unnecessary years of required experience.
3. Unnecessarily narrowed fields of specialized experience.
4. Unnecessary restrictions as to types of employing agencies or types of jobs held in specialized fields.
5. Unnecessary requirements as to special college courses or majors that keep inherently capable individuals out of competition.
6. Minimums, including knowledge requirements, which tend to protect "insiders" in an organization or a given type of work against the competition of "outsiders."
7. Arbitrary age and experience requirements that are ill-advisedly designed to measure maturity of the individual.

8. State and local restrictions which, for higher positions at least, sometimes cut down badly needed competition to a mere fraction of what it could be.

9. Prohibitions against the employment of married women, because they "don't need the work."

10. Arbitrarily established minimums that cast aside many thousands of women who, simply because they have been preoccupied with family responsibilities, have not had extensive employment records but who are nevertheless in many cases very capable.

It is sometimes believed that for any type of supervisory job a certain amount of prior supervisory experience should be required. This can hardly be considered sound; every supervisor has had at some time to make a start without prior supervisory experience. The same situation occurs with the lower so-called "entrance" classes through which it is necessary to recruit numerous individuals into an organization; prior experience comparable to that to be gained after selection can hardly be required.

Setting the Examination Pattern

JOB REQUIREMENTS, minimum or otherwise, are an integral part of the selection process. Obviously, therefore, those who analyze job requirements and those who examine candidates should work together closely in developing a well-integrated selection program. (Question: Should not one person perhaps do both for a given line of work?)

Every effort should be made to set up job requirements in such a manner that the examining process will not be any more complicated than is necessary to attain effective results.

Even though job needs may vary slightly for different levels of classes in a series, does it necessarily follow that significantly different minimums of formal education and experience can, or should, be set up? The person with six years of given experience isn't particularly better than one with five—or less—years. In fact,

just the reverse may often be true. One is reminded of the gentleman who carefully pointed out that he had "nine years of experience" on a given job. He quickly got the rejoinder, "What you probably had was one year of experience, nine times repeated!"

Differences in minimums that do not clearly result in the selection of better, or differently qualified, individuals merely serve to create more paper work in the examining office. There is no basic reason why minimum requirements in some cases might not be the same for two, three, or more classes in a given series.

It is not necessary that each succeeding class in a series require one or more additional years of experience over and above that required for the lower class. Such a pyramiding process would require individuals as aged as Methuselah to qualify for top positions in our federal government!³ Youth has much to offer. Why not allow it to compete on even terms?

In many merit system jurisdictions, elimination of split-hair differences in minimum education and experience requirements would permit a definite simplification in the existing examination processes. Somewhere along the line the idea got started that slightly different minimum requirements must be written, that different examinations must be given, and different employment registers set up for each one of a series of similar classes (differing primarily only in level of work responsibility). One examination and certification from one register would often give just as discriminating and just as valid results as are now produced from two to four examinations and registers.

The Keep-in-Line Advancement Concept

THERE IS ALWAYS need for highly capable administrators and specialists. When they appear on the scene, the need for using them is so real that they should be allowed to rise as fast as their demonstrated abilities warrant. For this reason it does

³ One jurisdiction is known to require as many as eighteen years of experience for higher graded jobs.

not seem necessary or desirable to require for each level of responsibility some experience on the level *immediately* below it. Such an arbitrary requirement blocks the rise of unusually capable individuals. It causes a serious waste of their capacities both for themselves and their employers. Such individuals are made to mark time while they "climb the ladder" as slowly as the fellow next to them.

For general administrative positions, it would appear that all that would absolutely need to be required might be a year, say, of any experience that is equal in level of responsibility to a specified class perhaps two to four levels down the line. Such a type of minimum would keep the patently unqualified person from applying. That is all that a minimum requirement can or should legitimately be expected to accomplish when there is an adequate selection program.

Rigidity in Promotion

MINIMUM EDUCATION and experience requirements, arbitrarily set without reference to actual needs of the job, can hinder effective placement work within the organization, including the promotion of individuals of demonstrated capacity.

However, if actual job requirements are realistically and carefully determined, such actual requirements can and should constitute the very foundation of an effective placement program. Placement work cannot be effective unless a clear picture is obtained of what each job requires and which of those requirements each individual in the organization has demonstrated he possesses.

Competition among both insiders and outsiders can never be made effective in its real essence unless it is brought into sharp focus with that picture.

Effect on Career-Service Opportunities

IT IS POPULAR to talk about career-service opportunities in governmental work. However, it is well to consider carefully whether those opportunities are actually as real as we might think or hope.

For many of the more important administrative and specialized positions in an organization, real career-service opportunities are drastically limited by:

1. The relatively small size of the agency.
2. A frequent lack of realistic opportunities to cross agency lines which restricts one's "career" to one or two jobs in a single agency, rather than opening the possibilities to jobs in a number of agencies.
3. A serious lack of opportunity to cross state and local lines because of residence barriers.
4. Other arbitrary requirements that eliminate qualified individuals on relatively superficial considerations.

For many types of work, real career-service opportunities cannot be built up within the narrow walls of one agency, or within the narrow walls built around a state, or within the "pigeonholes" often formed by unrealistic minimum qualifications. It is folly to talk of a career service for such types of work unless there are broad areas of opportunity and clear channels through which better jobs, and different jobs, can be obtained by qualified persons.

The "pigeonhole" concept of classification and selection—having no purpose broader than the immediate one of finding people to fill specific classes of jobs at specific times—is hardly consistent with the concept of a career service.

Such absolute minimums as are required should be developed not only with agency promotional opportunities in mind but also broad opportunities for a lifetime of service in a not-unnecessarily-restricted field of work.

Developing Broad-Gaged Administrators

CONSTANT NARROWING of required fields of specialized experience makes it more and more difficult to develop public administrators with a broad background of varied experience and a broad view toward administrative problems. This narrowing

trend can have vicious results. Not only does it tend to give those who are inbred a warped viewpoint toward general administrative problems, it also develops few broadly trained administrators.

The fields of general budgetary management and fiscal control, personnel management, and research, to name a few examples, are not narrow fields of specialized work around which barriers should be built. There are many areas of general administrative work where the same is even more true. If every minor administrator is more or less forced by minimum requirements to spend his life in one narrow field (or worse yet in a narrow field within a narrow field) from whence are broad-gaged administrators to come?

We would have a better supply of general administrators if more individuals crossed narrow lines of specialization and acquired a background of broad experience. Similarly, to put the shoe on the other foot, would it not perhaps be of benefit if more of those performing personnel and other staff functions crossed over the line occasionally and gained renewed operating experience?

Summary

TO BE REALISTIC, job requirements, including minimums, must be based on a careful analysis of the duties of the job and must relate to conditions of supply and demand. If they are realistic in this manner, they will help to bring about truly effective competition among the most capable individuals. They will also make possible effective placement work within an organization.

If there is an overabundant supply of capable individuals available, it may be desirable to use purely arbitrary educational and experience minimums merely to keep selection down. Generally speaking, however, absolute minimums should be established only when they are clearly related to job needs. Additional qualifications that are desired must, of course, meet the same test.

To go beyond this is to run the risk of choking off effective competition, limiting effective placement work, blocking career-service opportunities, and preventing administrative officials from gaining broad backgrounds of varied experience.

Minimum requirements should call for examination processes that are no more complicated than results warrant.

Minimum requirements should be kept

minimums. Qualifications that are desirable should never be used as minimums unless the supply of clearly capable individuals warrants, and then only to the extent that broad considerations of policy justify. Except for highly specialized jobs, selection of those familiar with a given field of work should be kept secondary to the basic problem of selecting inherently capable individuals.

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Accident Prevention in a Public Utility

H. B. FISHER
AND W. J. STEPHENS

A SAFETY PROGRAM is a selling job of the first order—selling the value of accident prevention to both management and personnel. First of all, management must be convinced that the cost of establishing and conducting such a program will result in a financial saving to the organization as well as to its employees. Management must also be shown that it will not interfere with normal operations but will improve efficiency and bring about better employee relations. Employees, on the other hand, must be shown that they, not management, stand to derive the greatest benefits from the program.

A well-conceived and carefully thought out program involving long-range planning can accomplish the foregoing results if its approach to the employees is one of sincerity of purpose. If such is not the case, the value of the program to the organization will be greatly depreciated.

"Safety" vs. "Accident Prevention"

THE WORD "safety" is widely misused and misinterpreted. Safety (the dictionary definition is "freedom from danger or hazard") is actually a state of perfection. Like the millennium, safety is something we strive for but which is unattainable because it is influenced entirely by human behavior. It can also be considered a state of mind that influences an employee—be he a manager, supervisor, or laborer—to

do the right thing at the right time, thus making his acts proper and efficient. The phrase "prevention of accidents" therefore more clearly describes what an organization is attempting to accomplish through the medium of a safety program.

When the work of preventing accidents is diligently undertaken, the results speak for themselves and will prove both convincing and encouraging. Accident prevention is not a one-man assignment but a cooperative program involving every employee in the organization. Employees who are not safety conscious become the weak link in the accident prevention chain.

It is almost axiomatic that every organization which has good personnel relations has a well-planned safety program. The prevention of accidents is a sincere and human approach to good employee relations. Through such a program, management is endeavoring to reduce an employee's chances of being injured on the job and is protecting his family by inaugurating measures that will prevent accidents. Cooperation of the individual employee is a vital part of the program. When successful, safety programs contribute to an employee's sense of belonging to and being a part of the organization.

Measurement of Progress

THE FREQUENCY RATE is a nationally employed index for comparison of accident prevention results between organizations. It is the most accepted measurement of an organization's progress because it indicates the number of potentially serious accidents (involving loss of time) per million man-hours of exposure. It must be borne in mind that accident statistics have to be accurate and fair. Too often the inclination is to eliminate this or that acci-

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dent from the tabulaion on a seemingly logical basis. But this is only self-deception. Telling the true story statistically will prove of greatest value in the end. If an organization's accident record is poor, let this fact be known generally; at the same time take immediate remedial measures to correct the situation and secure employee cooperation in tackling the job.

The East Bay Municipal Utility District has reduced its accident-frequency rate from a maximum of 46.6 to a minimum of 16.4 and 22.6 over a period of years. While this indicates a marked improvement, it is recognized that there is still much to be gained. Because of our widespread operations (the District serves the water supply to consumers in cities on the east side of San Francisco Bay and is presently constructing a sewage disposal project), it is impossible, as in many plants, to operate a central first-aid and medical unit. It is evident to us that many employees lose an extra day or two from work in reporting to their selected physician for a check-up as to their condition. An organization operating in a confined area would have the employee report to the medical unit, and in many cases, following the check-up, the employee would be assigned to light duties until he could report to his regular work, thus eliminating a lost-time accident. Under similar conditions, it is believed that the District's frequency rate would become about 12. The District's major interest is, and every organization's interest should be, to show a continuing improvement in its accident prevention program and to eliminate accidents causing death and crippling injuries.

The District has approached and still is approaching the problem of accident prevention logically by developing step by step a sound program and introducing new procedures and methods to revitalize it from time to time. We recognize the fact that there is room for improvement, but we are certain that the program is headed in the right direction. Our experience is typical of what other organiza-

tions have and can accomplish under a similar plan.

An Accident Prevention Program

THE DISTRICT's program may be briefly outlined as follows:

Organization. We have learned from experience that a comparatively few people working constructively can bring about an improvement in an organization's accident record, but there is a limit to their accomplishments. For best results, it is essential to promote employee interest by increasing the scope of employee activities and permitting many employees to participate in developing and broadening the program. The District's safety work is a part of the over-all personnel relations program and the direct responsibility of the Personnel Manager. It is a full-time program of selling, training, inspection, engineering, prevention, promotion, maintenance of statistics, and coordination of the activities. In this program, the Safety Technician and Safety Inspector are liaison employees working with and advising supervisory personnel.

Employee participation of a direct nature includes an Executive Safety Committee of nine members who establish, interpret, and clarify safety policies and procedures. A Divisional Safety Committee, composed of eleven employees representing every division of the organization, reports the results of its studies and findings for preventing accidents to the Executive Committee for its review. The Divisional Committee studies suggestions for needed improvements, develops workable ideas for carrying out the program, and reviews major and recurring accidents. The Shop and Field Committees, four committees of five employees each, are responsible for investigating and reviewing accidents in their respective areas and for suggesting workable improvements in the planned program. The personnel of these latter committees will change at intervals to increase direct employee participation.

Training. We consider training, the ac-

tion arm of our personnel program, the most important phase of the accident prevention program since it is the most direct method of accomplishing a safety selling job. Safety training has value from other than an accident-prevention angle. When properly conducted, it encourages employees to think about their jobs and improves relations by bringing employees and management together on a common ground. It also indicates the organization's interest in its personnel and improves operating efficiency. Much of the success of the safety program depends on the instructor and his methods of interesting and encouraging key personnel to participate in discussions during supervisory training conferences. He must also make the supervisors aware of the fact that theirs is a major responsibility for the direct success of the accident-prevention program.

The District has been extremely fortunate in being able to provide excellent instruction for its supervisory personnel. The programs have been carefully planned and prepared to adequately cover in a twenty-hour period, plus required study time, all important phases of safety supervision. The training should not be confined to one program, however. Continuing success requires that refresher courses be given regularly. All supervisory training courses have been conducted in overtime periods so as not to interfere with the normal operations of the organization.

First-aid training for individual employees is a valuable means of developing employee interest in accident prevention. The District's experience in conducting the twenty-hour standard first-aid course, in which 173 employees have received certificates of successful completion and seven first-aid teaching credentials, proved that this was one of the greatest stimuli given the accident-prevention program.

Other employee training courses which have been given to date to all, or the majority of, field employees have consisted of: Lifting and Material Handling, Use

of Goggles, and Fire Fighting. These programs were conducted because a breakdown of the causes of accidents indicated a need for this instruction. Other planned programs involve good housekeeping and determining basic causes of accidents and their prevention. "Stand-by" safety conferences will also be established. These will be conducted on the job at least once a month by the supervisor for the purpose of discussing safety matters and proper use of equipment with reference to the project at hand.

Arousing and Maintaining Interest

IT HAS BEEN previously pointed out that training is one of the most important factors in arousing and maintaining employee interest in accident prevention. Other methods which the District has used are:

1. Attractive bulletin boards and posters.
2. Safety exhibits, including exhibits of faulty equipment that caused accidents.
3. An employee magazine "Splashes," a monthly publication containing photographs, cartoons, and short, timely human interest articles on safety.
4. Informal accident hearings in which opinions of employees involved are solicited for preventing recurrence of such accidents.
5. "Safety Valve," a monthly publication devoted to accident statistics and important points relating to safety.
6. Individual recognition for work well performed by letters of congratulation and appreciation or safety certificates for nonaccident periods.
7. Interplant and intraplant contests.

The following article is a typical example of one developed for reader interest, leading the reader on without mentioning accidents or safety until he is well absorbed in the article. It also contains a summary of the District's over-all accident prevention program and brings out the direct benefits, financial and otherwise, to the employee and his family.

DOLLARS AND SENSE

Dividends to District Employees

Reading Time 3 Minutes

Your Budget Guardians

Bill T..., Chairman	Technical
Blair B...	Sanitary
Bill F...	Field Clerical
Ed J...	Pumping
Zern J...	Const. & Maint. of Structures
Jim K...	Mokelumne
Joe M..., Secretary	Personnel
Roy P...	Construction & Maintenance
Bill P...	Construction & Maintenance
Carl S...	Field Engineering
Cliff S...	Yards & Shops

This group of your fellow employees, headed by Bill T..., will serve as guardians of each individual employee's budget.

"How in the (blank) can these yokels help me to save even a nickel?" No doubt, that is the first question in the mind of each of you. Let's see what the answer is. It has been rather conclusively shown in previous articles in "Splashes" that in one year on-the-job mishaps cost District employees and their families that year and the years following as much as \$40,000. However, when we experienced a year of few severe mishaps, the loss to employees dropped to \$1,800. This latter amount can be further reduced. The above group, together with other committees, stands ready to aid you financially by plugging at least one possible leak in the family budget, not to mention protecting you from physical harm.

How?

We guessed that your next question would be just this—How? The answer is by making your job area a safer place to work and gaining your co-operation to do your job safely. This brings us to the over-all accident prevention program designed to accomplish the foregoing.

Up-to-the-Minute Features

Eyes Right! This doesn't mean that the wolf call follows, but improved eye protection does. The protection is furnished by the best obtainable type of goggles designed to resist severe impact. Over 200 employees whose jobs require eye protection have been assigned goggles for their exclusive use and protection and have been shown the value of these through an educational program.

Looking It Over. That's what a picked group did when they carefully inspected the District's operations for hazardous conditions. Many unsafe conditions already have been unearthed and eliminated and others will be corrected.

Brass Hat Training. 78 (repeat 78) foremen, supervisors, section, and division heads returned to school and took part in one of the four 20-hour intraplant safety training conferences. This course covers every phase of accident prevention.

Smoke Eating. To eliminate fires and provide protection from the demon fire, every plant, office and building was inspected. Result—proper equipment was installed to meet existing fire hazards, equipment properly marked and regularly inspected. Key employees are being trained in the operation of this equipment.

Round-Table Sessions. To plan and administer an accident prevention program, the practical ideas of many who know the operating problems of the District must be developed and put into action through group thinking and activity. The Executive Safety Committee reviews programs while the Divisional Safety Committee and other committees develop suggested improvements and assist in guiding the operations of the safety organization.

First Aid. The best of first-aid equipment has been procured and installed in all shops and offices and in or on all automobile equipment, depending on the number of employees these units service. Every passenger car is equipped with a first-aid kit for emergency use. All first-aid equipment is properly marked with specially designed "decals."

Competition—With Whom, When, Where, What? The District is and has been competing with other organizations in the utility field through the semi-annual interfleet and interplant contests conducted by the East Bay Chapter of the National Safety Council. In these contests we have secured three first places in the past year and a half. Let's make four more firsts this year by winning both the interplant and interfleet contests.

Talking It Over. District crews will be given training in matters that vitally affect your personal safety such as proper methods of lifting, or handling materials, housekeeping on the job, basic first aid, etc. These matters will be talked over in sessions in which the problems will be presented and the solutions developed.

General Activities. Better posters, bulletin boards, "The Safety Valve," "Splashes," and training programs have been and will be the media for telling you of the safety activities directed to benefit you. New committees will be appointed to inspect shop and field operations for unsafe conditions. Rules and regulations for accident prevention are being revised or developed covering various District activities.

Goal

A cooperative program developed by employees and management that can, and will, eliminate serious injuries and drastically reduce minor accidents is our goal. The result will be a dollar and cents saving to each employee greatly exceeding any possible financial gain to the District.

Testing

NINE YEARS AGO an eye and road testing program was developed to determine the driving weaknesses of District employees. These tests are still being conducted. Through a complete battery of eye tests such factors as depth perception, angle of vision, visual acuity, and color blindness are determined.

The primary value of the testing program is the personal selling of accident prevention to the individual employee by the Safety Examiner who devotes an average of one hour with each person exam-

ined. In this period, he learns a great deal about an employee, including the individual's driving habits, visual defects, and other information relating to his work. During the informal chat, the employee is advised of his driving weaknesses, particularly those due to visual deficiency which he is not compensating for in his operation of automotive equipment or in his work. At the same time he is advised of the District's interest and goal in the prevention of accidents.

This personalized approach to the prevention of accidents and the healthy discussion of the program have had a lot to do with the reduction of automobile accidents. An added feature recently inaugurated in connection with the District's civil service examination program for drivers has been a series of tests for measuring the driving skill of an operator. The tests involve backing along a one hundred foot line, parking within a marked area, negotiating a flag marked zig-zag course forward and backward, and the ability to drive through obstacles and stop within a prescribed distance.

Reporting and Investigating Accidents

OF PARAMOUNT IMPORTANCE to successful results in reporting accidents and particularly in obtaining the underlying or basic causes of accidents is the instruction of supervisors on how to properly record the true picture of an accident and events leading up to it.

The District's accident reports are thoroughly checked by the Safety Section, and all questionable cases or accident reports where the details are not complete are reviewed with the supervisor or employee involved. Informal hearings are held and the basic causes of accidents developed in order to inaugurate remedial measures. For example, through investigations and accident summaries it was determined that quite a number of potentially serious eye injury cases were developing. A safety goggle program was inaugurated and now over 250 employees are equipped with the type of goggles that meet the re-

quirements of their job. Since that time, eye injury accidents have been reduced to a minimum. Many examples of other improvements could be cited.

Employees and supervisors are continually reminded that all accidents (dented fenders, scratches, etc.) no matter how trivial must be reported.

Accident Statistics

THE BACKBONE of accident studies for any well-planned accident prevention program is the compilation and maintenance of adequate and reliable safety records. These statistics reveal over-all weaknesses in the prevention program and serve as a danger signal to those responsible for conducting and administering the program. A breakdown of basic causes of accidents, improper working methods, and the determination of employees who are accident prone can serve not only to prevent accidents but to increase work efficiency. Studies of year by year comparison of the frequency and severity of accidents indicate the trend of the results, but to properly evaluate these trends yearly working and traffic conditions must be taken into account. For example, a heavy construction program involving tunnel construction would greatly increase operating hazards so that working conditions would not be comparable with other years.

Individual employee accident statistics are maintained on their personnel kardex records. This card contains rather complete data on lost time and major accidents as well as a summary of total automobile and occupational accidents by years.

A study of individual employee records covering an eight-year period disclosed that 8% of the employees were causing an average of over 25% of the occupational accidents, with a peak year of 38%. Automobile accident summaries for the same period showed 13% of the drivers causing 38% of the accidents. As a result of this investigation it was possible to give special attention to the work and driving habits of these employees.

The statistics on occupational accidents have already been mentioned and will not be repeated here. The District's automobile accident rate per 100,000 miles of travel, excluding properly parked car accidents (as defined by the Safety Council), was reduced from a high of 4.89 and a four-year average of 4.00 prior to inauguration of the safety program to a low of 2.08 (war low of 1.57 excluded as not comparable due to reduction in traffic hazards). These reductions in accident rates were 57% and 48% respectively. The District's vehicular record for the three-year period following the war (1946 to 1948 inclusive) under greatly increased traffic conditions in the East Bay area averaged 2.98, which is 25% less than for the four-year period referred to, namely 1929-1932.

Each month, every Department, Division, and Section head receives a summary of the automobile and occupational accident record to date, compared with the same period for the previous year. Accompanying this is a brief but complete report of every accident occurring during that month.

Safety Dividends

Dollars and Cents. The dollars and cents value of a safety program, although a mercenary approach to the problem, is one that management must review to measure progress. It is extremely difficult to determine the savings resulting from a safety plan because of such intangibles as hidden costs. Most authorities estimate these hidden costs, such as effect of accidents on efficiency of other employees, damage to equipment and material, loss of time, or other factors, as being about four times the known losses.

Due to the marked increases in basic compensation insurance rates and a heavy construction program, the tempo of which has greatly increased since the end of the war, it is impossible to make an equitable comparison as to the exact amount of District savings that have resulted from the accident prevention program. Taking

a twelve-year period prior to the war, however, when the work load was fairly uniform, when the hours of exposure varied slightly, and during which the changes in basic compensation insurance rates were relatively small, the value of the District accident prevention program was clearly demonstrated.

When the program was inaugurated in 1932, the District's experience rating as established by its insurance carrier was 149%. This high rating was based on a poor occupational accident record over a series of years, and there was a threat of further increases. At this point, the first constructive steps were taken to bring about a reduction in accidents and a lowering of costs. The benefits derived more than met the costs of the safety program and resulted in a substantial saving as well. Averaging a five-year period, when little if anything was done in the interests of safety, with a five-year period, during which an accident prevention program was being conducted, reveals that a 45% saving in premiums was effected with a 75% reduction between the high and low years. The experience rating for these years ranged from a high of 149% to a low of 68%, or a decrease of 54%.

In a comparable period the automobile insurance for public liability started with a debit of 4% and was changed to a credit of 50%. Cost of public liability insurance coverage for fleet operation plus cost of repair to damaged District automotive equipment was reduced by 56%.

The foregoing facts are conclusive proof of the savings which can be effected by a well-planned, long-range safety program.

Human Values. Let us look at the human values which cannot be conclusively measured from a dollar and cents value, but instead are measured in terms of saving lives and reducing permanent injuries and human suffering. During the twenty-year period of the District's accident record, six deaths from occupational injuries were recorded. Only one of these, however, has occurred in line of duty

within the last 13 years, under an improved safety program. The dollar and cents saving to the individual employee and his family has previously been covered. This is tangible evidence of the importance of accident prevention to the family group.

A truly remarkable operating record is the fact that only one death has occurred during a twenty-year period, either to a District driver or to the driver of the other vehicle, in 40,460,000 miles of on-the-job travel by District employees. Investigations indicate this accident could not have been avoided by the District driver. The collision resulted from the other car's skidding on the highway directly into the path of the oncoming District car when the cars, headed in opposite directions, were only separated by 50 feet.

The District has made every effort to see that its injured employees receive the best possible medical attention and to check on the needs of their families during the period of convalescence.

True Progress

ACCIDENT PREVENTION is not a one-way, but a two-way road. Whatever effort an organization puts forth to bring about and improve safe operations is doubly returned in the form of valued dividends. Some of the dividends that can accrue when progress is made through safety are:

1. Increased efficiency through better planning.
2. Increased job interest on the part of the employee through a feeling of belonging.
3. Recognition to the organization through a good safety record.
4. Improved personnel relations through sincere interest in the employee as an individual.
5. Reduced insurance costs, hidden losses, and human suffering through constant vigilance.

Selling accident prevention to management and employees will mean "progress through safety."



THE BOOKSHELF



Processes of Organization and Management. Seckler-Hudson, Catheryn (Ed.). Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C. 1948. 296 p. \$3.75.

Professor Seckler-Hudson has gathered together an assorted variety of writings varying from political philosophy to an explanation of why the office of controller has lost power and prestige recently. Thus, Woodrow Wilson's sixty-year-old essay on the study of administration explains admirably why public administration in this country has developed later and in a different direction from others. Paul H. Appleby discusses the inter-relationships of politics and administration while at the same time emphasizing the importance of social science as a basis for public administration. Then follows a series dealing for the most part with the structure and theory of organization by such authors as Seckler-Hudson, Henry E. Niles, Harlow S. Person, Donald C. Stone and Russell Robb. The two essays by the latter were privately printed in 1910 when the author lectured in the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration. We must confess that we had never been aware of the man or his work but thoroughly agree with the editor that the essays are entirely worthy of resurrection.

This furnishes the opportunity to comment upon the unattractiveness of most writing on the subject of organization. It tends to take the form of stilted and wooden abstractions stated in the phraseology of formal logic. Your reviewer can say this with good grace because one of his own writings is included in the volume. In searching for an explanation for this lack of audience appeal in most management literature, the two essays by Harlow S. Person may furnish a clue. The first holds the reader's interest from beginning to end, whereas the second reverts to logical abstractions which require more than ordinary concentration. The former deals with Mr. Person's experiences while associating with Frederick W. Taylor and the early disciples of scientific management; he talks about people whom he knew and about whom he could comment warmly and vividly. The same is true of Robb who livens his style by presenting examples dealing with persons and associa-

tions. Robb also avoids pomposity by showing with illustrations how theories of organization are flexible guides rather than unalterable blue-prints; yet in doing so he does not belittle the orthodox credos which Simon has dubbed "proverbs."

Future literature on organization will undoubtedly reflect the increasing maturity of anthropology, sociology, and social psychology. While not eschewing logical abstraction, it will treat organization as inseparable from people, culture, institutions, and social groups. This is already being reflected in the writings of Burleigh Gardner, William F. Whyte, Elton Mayo, and Roethlisberger. This book contains one article on management democracy by an educationalist, but it suffers the defect of most approaches to this subject by failing to insist very strongly that democracy is not antithetical to strength and discipline.

The book's chief practical assistance to personnel people probably lies in the check lists and working procedures dealing with how to make an organization survey and how to bring about work simplification. These matters surely have a direct relationship to position classification, particularly in those agencies where organization control is associated with personnel administration. Of special interest in this connection are the papers on administrative planning by Gladieux, work simplification by Fite, and the outline of survey principles by the Bureau of the Budget.

Professor Seckler-Hudson is to be congratulated for bringing these for-the-most-part important papers into a single volume. Her own introduction and essay on major processes are not the least important sections of the book.—JOHN M. PFIFFNER, *University of Southern California.*

Principles of Personnel Testing. Charles H. Lawshe, Jr. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. 1948. 227 p. \$3.50.

Dr. Charles H. Lawshe, Jr., Professor of Psychology at Purdue University, has written a most readable and comprehensive book on the principles of personnel testing—covering a large number of fields in relatively short space.

The purpose of the volume is to acquaint the average employer with test construction,

test devices, and test values. It is evident that the author has sought to address himself to the average businessman or division head who has had little, if any, contact with the problem. His approach is couched in simple language, his tempo is a patient one, and the development of his topic is enriched by a generous number of descriptive graphs and scattergrams.

He writes, "It is the hope of the author that this book will prove useful to those now in or soon to be in managerial positions as a statement of what can legitimately be expected of tests and as a guide to the establishment of the policy framework within which a testing program must function." He succeeds definitely in achieving this objective. Dr. Lawshe is the true teacher who proceeds from the known to the unknown, who recognizes the value of visual aids, and who realizes he must move gradually from one point to the next. The reference covers hundreds of positions in the clerical and secretarial fields and in the industrial and vocational areas. Every chapter has its full quota of varied references and graphs, with a clear explanation for each. The volume is excellent for the tyro in the field. Technical terms are simply and clearly defined, and there is a practical explanation of approved techniques for choosing and validating tests applicable to employment needs.

Professor Lawshe devotes adequate space to such tests as interest and preference tests, personality tests, mental ability and mechanical aptitude tests, tests for clerical and secretarial positions, tests for salesmen and retail store employees, and tests for supervisory positions. In his treatment of many of these—but not all—he indicates the dangers and shortcomings that must be considered; unfortunately, however, this approach is not always consistent.

The author makes every effort to prevail upon the test administrator not to be too hasty in his procedures or conclusions. He cautions the reader that "no single test or combination of tests will ever do a perfect job." Later on in the book he expatiates on the greater worth and validity of a battery of tests. More suggested combinations of tests constituting a more valid measuring instrument would have increased the value of an already valuable book. Thus, mentioning the work that has been done in linking the Humm-Wadsworth Test, the Rorschach Test (which, surprisingly, the author does not refer to), and Bernreuter's Personality Inventory would have been helpful.

Dr. Lawshe dwells on the follow-up method in testing—an element so vital to determining validity as to be fundamental to any testing thesis. Another keystone in the work is the treatment of differences between raters. The recent volume entitled *Assessment of Men*, published by the O.S.S., made much of this factor in measuring the abilities and interests of candidates. It is refreshing to find adequate treatment given to differences of raters in this volume for a personnel staff. Of equal value is the space given to the fundamental problem of job analysis as a prerequisite to the worth of any testing instrument.

Graphs showing the results of tests appear on almost every page. The methods of card stacking, ranking, drawing scattergrams, indicating frequency distributions—these and other facets of testing are simply and adequately presented.

The chapter devoted to tests of mental ability constitutes a brief and adequate treatment of this important topic—even delving into the past and current theories on Terman's conclusions and interpretations.

Too little attention is paid to personality tests which seek to measure those behavior patterns that can insure or defeat success in leadership. Although it would not be proper to expect a full treatment of this topic in as condensed a presentation of all types of tests as this volume presents, nonetheless it would have increased the value of the book had less spatial equality been given to different types of tests and more proportionate space given to tests in terms of their relevancy to a job. As an example of this, eleven pages are given to personality testing as against twenty-nine pages to visual tests.

The book consistently warns the tester of many hazards that must be borne in mind when testing or constructing a test, such as, "It is sometimes argued that since people in certain occupations seldom engage in reading and writing in connection with their jobs, they are ill at ease and at a disadvantage when asked to take a written test. The validity of this argument has not been demonstrated," or that "Clerical tests are among the most widely used and least frequently validated of all personnel tests." One weakness is found in the chapter on test construction where the author emphasizes true-false tests but makes no reference to the guess factor.

Dr. Lawshe ends his volume with a list of tests classified according to purpose and objective. For the person not trained in the field

of tests and measurements, this book offers a rich source of information that is clearly stated and comprehensive in treatment. For those who are trained, it makes a good "review" volume.—**HAROLD FIELDS**, *New York City Board of Education*.

Practical Job Evaluation. Philip W. Jones. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York. 1948. 295 p. \$4.00.

Many books on job evaluation have been written in recent years, but most of them have been written from the textbook point of view and lack the earthy approach of this author. This book is devoted almost entirely to the practical aspects of job evaluation. Obviously, the author has participated personally in the procedures of devising and operating the job evaluation program that he describes in such intimate detail.

The historical background of job evaluation, the basic concepts of wage structures, and the four best-known plans of job evaluation are disposed of briefly in the first chapter and the author then plunges into the detailed procedures of designing, selling, and installing his favorite brand of job evaluation—the point system. He has but few kind words for the job-classification method of evaluation used by most public personnel agencies and proves his point by citing as examples two woefully inadequate descriptions of work performed. It would have been fairer to use some of the more complete and detailed descriptions prepared by Public Administration Service and like agencies.

The remaining thirteen chapters deal with the specific procedure followed and techniques used to establish a joint employer-employee job evaluation program for blue-collar jobs in a large, highly unionized manufacturing company operating during wartime under the general wage directives issued by the National War Labor Board. Every step in the processes of determining the jobs to be evaluated, job characteristics to be rated, weighting of the characteristics, preparing job descriptions, selecting the key jobs, and the actual assigning and totaling of point values is explained in clear and unmistakable terms. With this handbook as a guide, no one should have difficulty in applying the method in a similar industrial situation.

The author does warn the uninitiated that existing systems of evaluation cannot be transplanted to a new environment without careful

analysis of conditions and possible redefinition of job characteristics and point values. However, the procedures he outlines are fundamentally good and apply under all conditions.

Unlike many other writers on this subject, Mr. Jones seems acutely conscious of the human relations problem involved in selling the employees and the management on the program and getting a joint committee to work together harmoniously over a long period of time and to determine objectively the relative values of all the jobs. Considerable attention is rightfully directed to techniques employed in convincing employees, shop stewards, foremen, and supervisory personnel that a systematic approach to the problem of evaluating the monetary worth of human services benefits both sides of the bargaining table to an equal extent.

In the chapter on job descriptions, the author explains a use for job descriptions that is usually not given sufficient importance in texts on either governmental or industrial personnel. "If a company expects to conduct periodic wage surveys, the use of job descriptions will simplify the problem of conveying job content to other companies for comparison. . . . Well conducted surveys usually are based on specific job descriptions which have been chosen as representative of the wage structures being studied. The burden of the work, of course, is passed on to the company receiving the request. Actually, such participation in wage surveys may soon become a real chore, especially if the company solicited is well known in the industry or the community. The author believes that . . . the actual burden of matching jobs should be returned to those persons who are making the survey. This can be accomplished by selecting those job descriptions which are the nearest to those requested, writing the rates on them, and sending them to the inquiring agency. It is believed that the total results of the survey would also be of better quality." The author's beliefs are unquestionably valid.

The text is extremely well documented with data sheets, instruction forms, typical correspondence, and a complete sample job evaluation manual of some forty pages. In the restricted field of evaluating skilled and unskilled manual jobs in a factory setting, this book is probably the best thus far. However, it will have less value outside its own specialized field.—**PHILIP E. HAGERTY**, *New York State Salary Board*.

Job Horizons—A Study of Job Satisfaction & Labor Mobility. Lloyd G. Reynolds and Joseph Shister. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949. 102 p. \$2.25.

Individuals engaged in personnel management, especially in the field of placement and supervision, should find *Job Horizons* interesting, stimulating, and a challenge to deeper thinking. Although concerned primarily with results developed from studies in industry, conclusions described are applicable to public administration as well. It is a preliminary report of a much more comprehensive study to be presented within a year. Subjects of immediate importance and interest to the general public were selected. Primary factors deal with what makes the worker satisfied or dissatisfied with his job; the worker's first employment; how he finds a new job when needed; his conception of occupational advancement; and his view of job opportunity.

The study is the second one in a series to be issued under the auspices of the Labor and Management Center at Yale University where research is conducted primarily "to develop principles of human behavior in terms of observed cause-and-effect relations."

Material for the study was obtained by personal interviews carried on in a New England city, which in April 1947 had a population of approximately 350,000. There were some 500 manufacturing establishments; only 35 had more than 200 workers and 7 more than 1,000. The manual labor force consisted mainly of first- and second-generation European immigrants. Eight hundred manual workers, divided in two groups and identified throughout the study as Sample 1 and Sample 2, were interviewed. Sample group 1 was a cross section of 450 workers of men and women employed in nonmanufacturing as well as manufacturing industries. Foremen, supervisors, clerical and white-collar employees were excluded. Names were drawn at random from the 1946 city directory. Among limitations in this manner of selection was the fact that it was taken in October 1945 and therefore did not include veterans who had not returned from service or individuals who had left after the war. Since the average age of the group was 45, the younger, more active workers were not sufficiently represented. Sample group 2 included 350 workers who were relatively young, with more veterans and a higher mobility rate than Sample group 1. Men employed in manufacturing industries were considered. In spite of differences in the characteristics of the two

groups, their answers checked closely. Individuals conducting the interviews were well-trained. When questioned in their own homes and assured that their employers would not be contacted, workers expressed themselves freely.

Results obtained from these interviews will not be startling to those long familiar with principles of personnel administration. However, many ideas brought out in the study are thought-provoking and if properly analyzed will stimulate the reader's mental processes along broader fields. The following paragraphs summarize some of these conclusions.

Since a satisfied worker is more productive and efficient, management is interested not only in hiring good workers but also in keeping them content. It is important, therefore, to know as much as possible about what creates satisfaction. Although wages were found to be necessary and important to cover living costs, the worker was more apt to show interest in good working conditions, pleasant relations with co-workers, freedom from too close supervision, variety and interest in work assignments, and fair treatment. Often the opportunity to talk over his problem was sufficient to satisfy the worker, and he wanted a voice in how his job should be done. The authors were careful to point out that some employees naturally adjust themselves better to people and job situations than others. Many complaints about jobs, therefore, are actually due to the personal shortcomings of the individual. Furthermore, no matter how good conditions are in a given plant, or how well work is arranged, there will be many times when management cannot adjust a difficult situation such as occurs when an individual finds himself financially burdened because of many dependents.

Information secured from employees regarding their first jobs indicated that they were generally of the blind-alley type. This was due to chance selection and lack of knowledge about jobs. Since they were without previous experience, many individuals had no way of knowing what they wanted. An interesting point was brought out in the report indicating that although jobs were plentiful at the time the interviews were made and many vacancies existed, individuals were under the mistaken impression that jobs were still scarce, a belief that had grown up over a period of depression years. The fact was brought out that in taking the first best job at hand individuals usually do not make full use of their abilities, but that starting out on a blind-alley job

does not necessarily prevent progress later. However, previous knowledge before selecting the first job would not only benefit the individual but it would be helpful to the employer and community as well. The reviewer believes that vocational guidance and testing to determine abilities would be timely.

The question of how a worker finds a new job when he needs one was the next under consideration. Contrary to economic theory, those interviewed were rarely in a position to find more than one job and thus make final selection after comparison and careful consideration of advantages and disadvantages. As a rule, jobs were found through friends and relatives, former employees, or by random application.

When questioned regarding their concept of occupational advancement, workers revealed some interesting facts. The majority preferred to work in small plants even though their opportunities for advancement were greater in the larger ones. (This was illustrated by the fact that 33 percent of the workers in plants with 500 or more employees had advanced compared with 23 percent in smaller plants.) An increase in money was not the main reason for workers to seek promotion. (Interesting jobs, greater independence, and full use of skills were considered more important.) Over a third had no desire to change. Many were reluctant to become foremen. (They felt that a supervisory position would entail too much responsibility, that friendly relations with other workers in the plant would be changed, or perhaps that a supervisory position would not offer enough interest.)

Views about job opportunities were limited to actual experience. Most individuals were reluctant to leave their particular plants or the area in which they lived. They disliked a change that would upset their daily routine. (Believing that jobs were scarce, they had a tendency to stick to one job with the thought that it would give them security in case of reduction in force.) They considered length of service and quality of work the only fair reasons for granting promotions.

Job Horizons is not based on theory as to what brings about good morale in an organization; it is a practical first-hand account of what employees actually felt was important to keep them satisfied in their jobs. It is written in simple style, free from technical terms, and contains many short excerpts from interviews conducted.

Contrary to popular belief, the study reveals that money is not primarily what attracts employees and keeps them on the job. Good supervision which is free from pressure perhaps ranks highest in maintaining morale. The supervisor is in a position to have close contact with workers. If leadership is poor, or if instructions are not understood, there is a feeling of resentment which does not always lead to turnover, but at least it creates tension, lowers morale, and affects the amount of work an employee produces. Fair treatment, good human relations, and interest in work were also stressed.

There are of course many points which have not been covered in this study of jobs which would be helpful if explored more fully. The authors made this point clear, however, and have indicated that many factors have not been considered. It is assumed that since the report is introductory, the book covering this subject will delve more thoroughly into such matters as the influence of personality upon advancement, the relationship between ambition and ability, and the value of incentives in creating more satisfactory job relationships.—ELEANORE DMITRIEFF, *Bureau of Internal Revenue*.

The Firemen's and Patrolmen's Unions in the City of New York. Emma Scheweppe. King's Crown Press, Columbia University, New York. 1948. 395 p. \$4.50.

"The process of turning out books on labor organizations and labor problems continues apace," Harry Albert pointed out in the July, 1948, issue of *Public Personnel Review*. The pace still continues.

Miss Scheweppe's contribution is based on the premise that valid conclusions concerning the moot role of public-employee unions must be grounded in case studies of particular unions. Her case study deals basically with the history of two such unions, the Patrolmen's Benevolent Association (independent) and the Uniformed Firemen's Association of the City of New York (affiliated with the AFL). Before getting down to these specific unions, however, the author presents an analysis of prevailing opinions, pro and con, regarding unions in the public service, with specific reference to such controversial subjects as the legality of collective bargaining agreements, the question of sole collective bargaining power, affiliation with organized labor, and the use of the strike.

Emphasis is placed on the particular problems generated in the area of public safety employees—policemen and firemen.

The development of various employee organizations in the Police and Fire Departments in New York City, from 1890 through 1946, is reviewed in apparently complete detail. Some very interesting incidents are recorded. After many years of strenuous effort (all presented in detail) the firemen won a two-platoon system, which took them off 24-hour continuous duty (with 3 days off a month). In 1926 they were ordered to drill during overtime hours (without compensation) in preparation for the filming of a commercial motion picture. When they protested, the two-platoon system was suspended and they were back on continuous duty.

When a police commissioner polled his force on the question of a proposed salary reduction, he reported a vote of 17,979 to 600 in favor of the proposal; in a closed meeting of the Association, the proposal was rejected by an almost unanimous vote.

At the outset of the recent war, the administration refused to grant leaves of absence for entrance into the armed services and asked for draft deferment of all firemen. Those who enlisted were branded by the fire commissioner as "slackers and unpatriotic."

Miss Schweppe does not hesitate to make positive statements. "The Democratic party's return to power (in 1918) brought an eight-year spoilsman's rule. With Police Commissioner Richard E. Enright, who took the Mayor's orders, Mayor Hylan unconscionably used the Police Department as a means for repaying debts to district leaders. Enright's administration was a thoroughly corrupt one."

"During the lawless prohibition era (Mayor) Walker gave the smooth-running political machine six years of opportunity for graft."

"Fiorello H. La Guardia was . . . elected. Therewith the municipal employees prepared for dark days ahead. . . . The administration

was marked by progressively deteriorating management-employee relationships."

"Some organizations, as every policeman knows, are milked by their leaders for their own interests.' This criticism seems to be true of the Patrolmen's Benevolent Association."

"The Medical Boards of both the Departments (Police and Fire) have been the center of graft."

Perhaps the best summary of the actual case study is contained in the single sentence: "The most optimistic will grant that real unionism in the public safety departments, the police in particular, is decades distant."

The book is printed by a process involving the photographic reproduction of typewritten sheets, without the participation of professional linotype operators and proofreaders. It contains a large number of errors in grammar and punctuation, a profusion of gratuitous apostrophes, the innovation of such strange words as "dissentions" and "ostensively," and quite a few strike-over letters. Reference is made to the March 7, 1914, and March 29, 1918, editions of a newspaper which was first issued (as is correctly pointed out elsewhere) in 1939. No wonder the publisher states: "The work is presented substantially as submitted by the author, without the usual editorial attention of Columbia University Press."

The author's obviously painstaking research and careful documentation of all statements have resulted in a plethora of notes and references. These are not presented as footnotes, but are collected in the pages following the main text. There are no fewer than 1,264 such references, an average of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per page. These citations are all external, and do not refer to other pages within the volume. In addition to these specific references, there is a 22-page bibliography and a 14-page index. The index gives every appearance of being comprehensive—until you try to locate something you know is some place in the book.—WILLIAM BRODY, *New York City Department of Health.*

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the
Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

MITCHELL, JAMES M. "Some Current Problems Confronting Cities—Personnel." *Public Management*, 30 (11) November, 1948: 322-3. Six problems seem today to be important in the field of public personnel administration: (1) The problem of determining reliable, valid methods for selecting administrative personnel. Preliminary indications are that truly scientific methods of selecting administrators will be available within the next few years as a result of experimental work presently going forward. (2) The problems of training administrative personnel. Since selection methods are imperfect, it seems apparent that training will pay big dividends. This is an area in which only a beginning has been made. Many top administrators must still be sold on the benefits of training subordinates with administrative responsibilities. (3) The problem of collective action by public employees. In many cities, management now regularly discusses major personnel policies with representatives of unions as a matter of course. Consultation with employee groups is reported by an increasing number of managers to be highly profitable. Changes on this front are coming rapidly, although the proper sphere for collective action is not clearcut. (4) The problem of the changing role of the personnel agency in municipal administration. The transition from a "police" approach to the "service agency" concept is coming about slowly. The primary efforts of the personnel agency should be directed to assisting management in selecting and promoting the best possible persons and removing the incompetent. (5) The problem of a sound pay policy. The most competent personnel will leave for other employment unless municipalities can pay adequate salaries, in keeping with the times. Formal pay plans based on comprehensive job classification plans and periodic salary surveys insure equal pay for equal work. Cost-of-living plans have attracted increasing interest in recent years. Pay policy must be stated, and clearly understood by all those affected by it. (6) The problem of prestige of the public service. The solution lies in improved government at all levels, of which the council-manager city government is an outstanding example.—*Marvin W. Strate.*

VAN RIPER, PAUL P. "The Constitution and the Patronage." *Personnel Administration*, 11 (2) November 1948: 1-6.—The growth of the American public service has only slowly followed that of the English system and has not yet proved to be as nonpolitical. We need not apologize, however, for it is not necessarily desirable to ape our predecessors, and there are, indeed, basic constitutional reasons why our civil service has not, and cannot function like its European models. European civil services have developed under a unitary, parliamentary government. Ours has arisen from a governmental system based in part on federalism and the separation of powers, concepts tending to frustrate the fullest development of a national nonpolitical federal bureaucracy. Under federal arrangements, politicians depend for their elections solely upon local electorates: they are returned to office if they satisfy local needs and desires. This relative independence encourages them to control in terms of local traditions those parts of the federal government directly affecting their own constituencies (the exclusion of Negroes from politics in the South, for instance). All over the country, the pressures of localism militate against a growing nonpolitical centralized bureaucracy which might interfere with the operations of local politics, and they have been aided by the separation of powers. Constitutionally, Congress creates and abolishes offices and fixes the qualifications of officers, while the President has collateral powers of appointment and removal of officers. This fusion of personnel powers between the executive and legislature renders the constitutional basis of a federal public service rather uncertain. Political antagonisms between the two branches of the government and also between the President and local factions in his own party have perhaps retarded the public service as often as they have advanced it. This basic constitutional conflict will always prevent any perfect realization of a nonpolitical national public service. Failing constitutional revision of the difficulties, the solution of the problem seems to lie in the integration of politics and administration so as to avoid the worst aspects of the spoils system and aid rather than harm administration.—*Adele S. Hebb.*

PIFFNER, JOHN M. "Observations on Work Adjustment." *Personnel*, 25 (3) November, 1948: 194-198.—Personnel management of the future will have the responsibility of selecting persons qualified for particular positions and also of developing others for jobs which may fit their natural endowments. Management should concern itself not only with placing the worker of superior intelligence but also with the social responsibilities it has toward the assembly-line worker. It is a management responsibility to provide job satisfaction to employees engaged in monotonous tasks by providing group association which will give social satisfaction and also by providing some means of mental catharsis to relieve them of tensions. The highly intelligent worker normally should not be permanently placed in routine and monotonous work although he may be so employed for temporary periods. If he suffers personality defects or possesses other disabling factors, he may be willing to put his "intellect on ice" for long periods of time. In any case, a sense of achievement should be possible for all workers to forestall fatigue. Some studies have shown that production increases when decision making is reduced to a minimum, and the attractiveness of the job is not thereby diminished. Specialists are needed on the personnel staff but immediate supervisors must also understand employee needs and be able to give specialized counsel if maximum job satisfaction and production is attained.—*Patricia C. Livingston*.

KREIDT, PHILIP H., and STONE, C. HAROLD. "College Courses for Personnel Work—Union and Management Preferences." *Personnel Journal*, 27 (7) December, 1948: 247-50.—The University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center has collected information from persons now employed in industrial relations work with respect both to their educational background and to the college courses which they consider would be beneficial as preparation for their present work. This information should assist college faculties in planning curricula, students in planning their educational programs, and those already employed in unions and industry who have to select their assistants or who wish to continue their own training. Only those jobs in which college graduates are likely to find employment were included in the analyses. Well over half of the 437 individuals included in the survey were college graduates. The trend toward professionalism in the field is indicated by the

number of union and industry personnel who have received advanced degrees. Sixteen per cent of industry personnel workers report an M.A. or a Ph.D. degree. Among union personnel this trend is particularly evident for research directors and educational directors, 67 per cent of whom hold the degrees of M.A. or Ph.D. Of the courses voted most suitable, management personnel make all but one of their highest ranking selections from the fields of economics and psychology. With the exception of general psychology and speech, they consider specialized technical courses more worthwhile than elementary courses of a more general nature. However, relatively few persons had taken these specialized courses themselves. On the other hand, the elementary background courses such as general sociology and general economics, which many have taken, received lower ratings. The data in this study indicate a need for more adequate and varied courses and better educational and vocational guidance for students who seek personnel positions. It seems probable that in the future there will be more opportunities in personnel work for persons with graduate school training. (Article contains tables showing evaluation of college courses by persons in industrial personnel positions and by persons in union staff positions.—*Ruth Hanson*).

Testing Men

GHISELLI, EDWIN E., and BROWN, CLARENCE W. "The Effectiveness of Intelligence Tests in the Selection of Workers." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 32 (6) December, 1948: 575-80.—Intelligence tests are more widely used by employers than any other type of test to select workers. The reasoning seems to be that while they may not be effective in all cases, at least they do no harm. A survey was made of 185 instances wherein intelligence test scores were checked against job proficiency measures in eight occupational fields. Median validity coefficients ranged from .09 for sales clerks to 0.35 for clerical workers. A breakdown of the data showed that the validity coefficients for clerical workers, supervisors, and unskilled workers ranged from zero to above 0.70. For semiskilled workers, some were high, but a few were negative and reached as low as -0.35. Coefficients were generally high for skilled workers, while for salesmen and protective service workers they were of the order of 0.30. Of 18 coefficients for sales clerks studied, 13 were negative and ranged as low as -0.60,

the highest positive coefficient being 0.25. A study of the significant difference of the correlations from zero seems to point to the following conclusions: (1) For clerical workers, intelligence tests are very useful selection instruments; (2) For supervisors, salesmen, and skilled workers, intelligence tests show high promise of being very useful instruments, but further knowledge of their effectiveness is needed; (3) For sales clerks and unskilled workers, intelligence tests are of little service in selection; (4) For semiskilled workers, they may prove of some value in combination with other tests but show little promise as single instruments; (5) For protective service workers, intelligence tests may prove useful if combined with other tests, but further data are needed. (Article includes tables showing distribution of coefficients, median coefficients, and significance of coefficients at the 1 per cent and 5 per cent levels.)—*Roberta Scott.*

GUILFORD, J. P. and COMREY, ANDREW L. "Prediction of Proficiency of Administrative Personnel from Personal-History Data." *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, (3) Autumn, 1948 (Part One): 281-96.—The investigation reported here represents an attempt to measure administrative ability using a biographical-data technique. The criterion group was made up of 328 principals and vice-principals of Los Angeles elementary and junior-high schools who completed responses to 150 multiple-choice items designed to elicit information concerning: (1) childhood background and family life; (2) professional preparation; (3) health; (4) interests; and (5) early signs of leadership. The 328 principals were divided for comparison purposes into three groups, each of which was further subdivided into a high and a low half on the basis of periodic promotional ratings. The ratings used were found to be sufficiently reliable for the purpose of the study, but no measure of their validity could be made. This is recognized to be the weakest point in the research. An item analysis was conducted in which responses to various items were correlated with success as a principal. In all, 57 items were statistically significant in distinguishing between upper and lower halves of the individual groups. However, only eight of these items proved significant for more than one group. These results point to the conclusion that the personal-history inventory method has questionable value for the selec-

tion of school administrators. Since it seems reasonable to presume that these results stemmed from the types of biographical data sought rather than from the method by which the data were obtained, this conclusion may be extended to similar types of information obtained in application forms or in interviews. (The article includes samples of the items used, statistical notes on the methodology and results, and several references to other studies in the use of the biographical-data method.)—*Stanley S. Berg.*

Placement Service Standards and Evaluation

COHEN, LEONARD. "More Reliable Job Evaluation." *Personnel Psychology*, 1 (4) Winter, 1948: 457-64.—For the purpose of studying reliability of job evaluations, a Pittsburgh machine tool company agreed to reevaluate their key job scale for one of their divisions, a task involving a wide range of jobs from laborer to foreman. The first re-evaluation was done by two members of the original job evaluation committee—the chief industrial engineer of the company and a union representative. The coefficient of correlation of this re-evaluation with the original valuation was 0.949. A second reevaluation was undertaken by an individual completely foreign to the division—the associate director of industrial engineering for the parent company. The coefficient of correlation of the second re-evaluation with the original valuation was 0.951. In spite of the high over-all correlation in these two re-evaluations, great differences existed in the evaluations of individual jobs, the reason being differences in the reliability of rating of the factors involved in each job. Evaluations of the various factors in each job could be made more reliable and more objective if the evaluation committee (union or other workers' representatives and management) would determine through negotiations what factors are to be evaluated and how much each factor is to be worth in relation to each other factor. The actual valuing of jobs with respect to these factors would be done by "experts" in the various fields, e.g., physiologists to determine amount of physical effort required on a job, engineers and scientists to evaluate working conditions by technical measurements, industrial psychologists to evaluate experience requirements by examining employment and production records of successful and unsuccessful employees. The limitation of job evaluation reliability would no

longer be in the frailties of human observation and judgment but in the technical limitations of more objective measuring devices.—*Bettie J. Levy.*

CHESTER, DAVID J. "Reliability and Comparability of Different Job Evaluation Systems." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 32 (5) October, 1948: 465-75.—The purpose of this investigation was to study the reliability of a job evaluation manual, as determined by a comparison of ratings made by independent raters evaluating the same jobs, and to determine the degree to which different types of job evaluation systems give the same results. The basic methodological feature of the study was to have raters in various companies evaluate a standard set of job descriptions and specifications for 35 representative salaried jobs on a standard job evaluation manual and on their own respective company manuals. The standard manual was of the point-rating type and contained 12 factors. The reliability of the standard manual was determined by comparing the results of independent raters in making original ratings. Inter-rater correlation coefficients ranged from 0.93 to 0.99 with an average of 0.97. The high order of these coefficients was ascribed primarily to the thorough and detailed nature of the job descriptions and specifications. Correlations between each factor of the standard manual and total score on the standard manual were computed from data submitted by three companies. Except for one factor, there was a high degree of similarity among the three correlations computed for each factor, suggesting high factor reliability. Intercorrelations among six different company job evaluation systems ranged from 0.89 to 0.97 with a mean of 0.94. These six systems included two factor comparison systems with 5 factors each, two point rating systems with 15 factors each, one point rating system with 13 factors, and one ranking system. The results indicate a high degree of commonality among different job evaluation systems. The practical import of these findings is that the particular type of system used in an organization is not nearly so important as the integrity and accuracy with which it is installed, policed, and maintained. (Article contains tables showing details of standard manual factors and correlations and intercorrelations studied.)—*Robert C. Garnier.*

SWEETZ, ELDON E. "Training Supervisors to Establish Performance Standards." *Personnel*

Administration, 10 (6) July, 1948: 28-31.—Approached as a part of the broad program of supervisory development, the use of standards of performance becomes inseparable from the other basic responsibilities of the supervisor. Training in the establishment of standards should be made a part of the total program for development of supervisory competence. The answers to five questions are the basic material for a program of training: Why is a definite, written standard of employee performance needed? What method should be followed to establish a standard? How is the standard to be used? What is the operating procedure to be followed in establishing the standard? How can the acceptance of the standard by employees be assured? Nine distinct types of standards have been identified—"how many," "how soon," "what effect—quantity," "method," "knowledge," "personal characteristics," "error rate," "what effect—accuracy," and "appearance." Demonstration of the uses of standards, discussion of the task and its identification, and the careful explanation of each type of standard in terms of "a reasonable requirement of the position" have produced supervisors who are able to establish a standard and prepare an understandable written statement. The most successful method of imparting the knowledge required has proved to be group discussion under the guidance of a well-trained leader selected from the "line" organization.—*William Brody.*

KIDNEIGH, JOHN C. "Standards of Performance for a Social Welfare Agency." *Public Welfare*, 6 (11) November, 1948: 220-223, 228.—Many social workers have felt that the intangible arts of case work prevent writing comprehensive performance standards. Basically, the discharge of duties in what may be defined as an acceptable manner determines the standards. Necessarily related to a total personnel program, standards of performance must be implicit in applying the principle of equal pay for equal work and are inherent in the concept of a career service. The first step is to clarify the job in terms of objectives and functions, methodology, relationship in the organization, and responsibility and authority. This leads to job classification and a listing of all job factors or duties in each class. The list should be organized to represent the major aspects, identifying the most and least important. Standards of performance can then be determined, establishing for each of the in-

dividual duties the degree of efficiency that must be attained for satisfactory performance. The resulting statement defines the adequate method of performance, adequate results of performance, and standards of personal behavior. A rating system for evaluation of performance should have a direct relationship to the individual duty standards, with degrees of excellence of performance for each duty. The list of duties and performance standards have additional value in the orientation of new workers, in staff training, and in making decisions on a variety of personnel and administrative actions. Once established, performance standards and the evaluation system should be revised in accordance with experience and changing conditions. If employees participate in the revision process, staff understanding and acceptance and greater reasonableness of the systems will be more nearly assured. (Article contains sample list of case work duties and accompanying standards of performance.)—*John C. Crowley.*

Selection

PIFFNER, JOHN M. "Selection and Development of Supervisors." *Personnel*, 25 (4) January, 1949: 226-47.—Hit-or-miss methods have been the general rule in selecting supervisors and executives in industry and government. In recent years, however, industry has devoted increased attention to planned development of supervisory personnel. As to opportunities for supervisor positions, large organizations have one supervisor or person in formal leadership over others, for about every 8 to 12 persons. Small organizations, likely to reach the saturation point in development of leaders sooner than large organizations, have the problem of malcontents who were deliberately encouraged by management to aspire beyond existing opportunities. Another consideration concerns those who are unwilling to accept supervisory responsibility because it means leaving their social organization, or it causes mental depression, or they have not matured to it. Training people to have skill in human relations and supervision is possible, provided the organization furnishes the climate, that is, two-way communication, a sense of belonging, dissemination of full information about the organization and its objectives, recognition of the dignity of each individual regardless of organizational status. If the organization and job relationships are characterized by stress and pressure, there is probably little that

training can do to alleviate the situation. The supervisory and executive selection and development program should be carefully planned, and only those selected on the basis of a true clinical approach should be encouraged to take part. Step one should involve a system for collecting, filing, and analyzing all pertinent information about the candidate. Another phase of the clinical approach is a program or battery of tests, not the single-shot test program which was sold to some firms and failed to survive the initial burst of enthusiasm. The use of tests has the advantage that competent people will be selected who might miss nomination under more personal procedures. For example, under the system of job bidding in industry and promotional examinations in civil service, each using tests as part of the selection process, halo factors tend to be ironed out and persons with less flashy but nevertheless substantial competence will be encouraged to emerge from anonymity. Tests of administrative ability and intelligence (and of personality and temperament in a clinical situation), all contribute. Any test program should be accompanied by research, with statistical procedures to determine reliability and validity for the purpose at hand. Employment interviews should be included, although they are necessary evils, necessary for lack of substitutes for eliminating negative and obvious personal characteristics, and evil because they are neither reliable nor valid. One report indicates that employment interviewers are prone to express bias in the form of preconceived stereotyped notions of how a desirable candidate looks and acts, for example, the kind of fellow one would feel comfortable with in the officers' dining room. Industry has made some experiments with the use of worker opinion in selection of supervisors. One important source of clinical data is a full personal history, including perhaps responses to interview questions about educational, social, family, and present domestic situations and adjustment. Psychometric treatment of biographical data in selecting pilot trainees for World War II met with marked success, which was apparently not matched when the approach was applied in the case of school principals and vice principals. If supervisors' ratings represent a painstaking clinical approach, they should get credence in the total score. Another possible element is the stress interview, used by the Office of Strategic Services in the selection of intelligence agents for work

abroad. (Footnotes refer to recent articles and reports on selection and development of supervisors, and the author requests copies of research reports and case examples.)—*Miriam M. Stubbs.*

GELLHORN, WALTER and BRODY, WILLIAM. "Selecting Supervisory Mediators through Trial by Combat." *Public Administration Review*, 8 (4) Autumn, 1948: 259-66.—Ability to get along with others, the skill of leadership, capacity for acceptance by a group, quickness of comprehension, mental alertness—characteristics such as these distinguish the successful labor mediator. Technical knowledge, facility of speech, and a good cultural background are valuable but are not the basic ingredients. For these reasons, and because each candidate had passed a written test before original appointment, the New York State Department of Civil Service selected the group oral performance as the only assembled test in a promotional examination of supervisory mediator. The ten candidates were given no advance information concerning the nature of the oral test. On the examination morning, the candidates assembled separately in two groups of five each. On the basis of written instruction, each group discussed for ninety minutes what advice they would give a new mediator in regard to handling contract negotiations under stated circumstances. The three examiners observed from the background. In a three-hour afternoon session, all ten candidates and the examiners assembled in a lecture room and, in accordance with written instructions, each candidate spoke for five minutes on a topic selected from a list of topics relating to labor relations. A ten-minute discussion period followed each talk. As in the morning session, the examiners kept in the background. The examiners, two of whom had technical knowledge of mediation, rated the candidates not only on four personal factors but also on knowledge and technique of labor mediation and arbitration. Some apparent advantages of the group oral are: (1) It is realistic; (2) It enables the examiners to concentrate on observation and note taking; (3) It permits direct comparison of candidates; and (4) It allows five hours, instead of forty minutes, for observing each candidate. Application of the group oral test to other classes of positions seems fully warranted. (Article contains instructions given the candidates.)—*Lloyd W. Woodburn.*

Merit Rating

BITTNER, REIGN. "Developing An Employee Merit Rating Procedure." *Personnel*, 25 (4) January, 1949: 275-91.—The question of rating people who work for us is one of *how* we will make our ratings rather than *shall* we do so. As long as two people are thrown together, each will make judgments about the other. The choice lies between making capricious judgments or rating according to an organized and systematic procedure. Since the latter choice is obviously the wiser one, it then becomes necessary to accept some form of merit rating procedure which will enable us to take a periodic inventory of our peoples' weaknesses and strengths. If your rating procedure is to be effective, it should be tailor-made to fit the problems in your organization. However, these questions should be faced before we worry about the rating form: What are the aims and purposes? They should be limited to as few as possible. Will people be told how they rated? This must be considered in the design of the form in order to make it possible to achieve the many benefits of reporting back to the rate. Who should rate? Whether people are rated by superiors, by those of equal rank, or by subordinates, the raters must be familiar with the person's work. How often to rate? The frequency may have an indirect effect on the validity of its ratings. Will raters have time to carry out the program? An adequate merit rating plan requires the rater to devote considerable time to it if the results are to be worthwhile. In the development of the rating form itself, these problems must be considered: What traits to measure? Those to be included should be selected on the basis of observability, universality and distinguishability. What type of rating form? This may be dictated to a large extent by the purpose of the rating procedure. Should traits be weighted? It must be kept in mind that the real weight of a trait depends upon its variability and can be determined only after an analysis of the ratings. Almost any form would give reasonably good results, providing it was chosen in the first place to conform to the objectives of the rating program, and if systematic rater training is an integral part of the rating system. Such a training program must sell the raters on the value and importance of merit rating and teach them how to make accurate ratings. How effectively these merit rating results will be used depends somewhat on these problems. Should merit ratings be made the

basis upon which administrative actions affecting the worker can or must be taken? Should the results be reported to the employee in terms of numerical scores? What safeguards should be taken that ratings will not be invested with more accuracy than they deserve? How are group relationships taken into account in using the ratings? One of the newest types of rating scales was developed recently by the Army. While the results have been found to be more accurate than those from other methods, development of the scale involves technical problems requiring the best of research men. For this reason and because the method of scoring must be kept secret, this type of rating scale is not yet being used in industry.—*Herbert Shell.*

SISSON, E. DONALD. "Forced Choice—The New Army Rating." *Personnel Psychology*, 1 (3) Autumn, 1948: 365-81.—The origin of the use of efficiency reports for Officers of the U. S. Army is lost in history, as is the story of the evolution of the formal procedures of reporting. Sometime after the first World War, however, a standard form was adopted and a procedure regularized for accomplishing this report. Thereafter, twice each year—on June 30th and on December 31st—every officer in the Army has been rated by his immediate superior, and this rating submitted to the War Department. Though early recognized as not completely satisfactory, the original rating form remained in force (with sporadic minor amendments) until it was superseded in July of 1947. The new form is the product of many months of concentrated research. It is radically different in many respects from the

old form, and from other rating devices currently in use in industry. Its most novel feature is the use of what has been called the "forced-choice" rating method. Rather than indicating how much or how little of each characteristic an officer possesses, the rater is required to choose, from several sets of four adjectives or phrases, which best characterizes the officer, and which is least descriptive. In other words, it calls for objective reporting and minimizes subjective judgment. And because of the way in which the tetrads—sets of four rating elements—are constructed, it reduces the rater's ability to produce any desired outcome by the choice of obviously good or obviously bad traits. It thus diminishes the effects of favoritism and personal bias. The technique, and the form embodying it, has been tried out on fifty thousand officers—in both experimental and official trials—and the results obtained with it have been compared with independent criteria of efficiency arrived at through group ratings. The new method is superior to all other methods examined. It produces a better distribution of ratings and is relatively free from the usual pile-up at the top of the scale. It is less subject to influence by the rank of the officer being rated. It is quickly and objectively scored by machine. And above all, it produces ratings which are more valid indices of real worth. The particular form developed for rating Army officers would probably be of little value for other groups—largely because of the specificity of the rating elements it contains. The technique, however, has already proved of value in other situations, and there is every reason to believe that it is even more generally applicable.—*Charles H. Bentley.*

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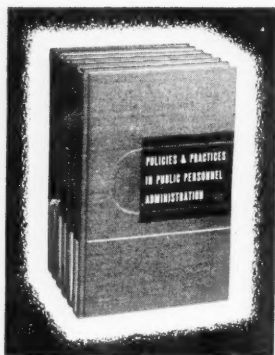
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